Kaiming English Grammar

开明英文文法

著者 林语堂

外语教学与研究出版社

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KAIMING ENGLISH GRAMMAR

By Lin Yutang

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林语堂 编

外語教学与研究出版社

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EDITOR'S NOTE

The present volume is a slightly abridged reprint of Lin Yutang's original work, which first appeared in 1933 under the imprint of Kaiming Shudian and ran into ten editions within less than fifteen years. The only justification that can be offered for bringing out a new edition of an old book such as this is that it has retained to this day much of its original novelty in the light of some latest developments in the methodology of foreign language teaching.

This is a book based on notional principles. Here grammar is regarded as a science of expression, and not as a dry-as-dust collection of categorical rules plus equally categorical exceptions. In the treatment of English grammatical facts the principle adopted is to proceed from the inner meaning to the outward form, and not the other way round.

It will be seen that the principles lying back of this grammar have very much in common with those of the communicative approach, notional or functional syllabus, etc., which have caught the imagination of so many applied linguists and language teachers. A review of the *Kaiming English Grammar* makes one feel that all these innovations are not so very new after all. One is even tempted to think that Lin Yutang's book, with its lucid explanations and copious illustrative examples, compares rather favourably with some of the more recent works. The inventory of notions and their ways of expression given in these books are often about as interesting as the menu of an English restaurant.

Nor was Lin Yutang the originator of the new concept of teaching grammar. As was acknowledged, he owed it to the works of Benedetto Croce, Ferdinand Brunot, Henri Frei, and more specifically of Otto Jespersen, notably his *Philosophy of Grammar* and *Modern Enghish Grammar*, whose influence is evident in many pages of the present work.

It is interesting to note that in 1933, about three years after Lin Yutang had finished working on this grammar, Jespersen himself produced a one-volume grammar embodying the principle explained in *The Philosophy of Grammar*, entitled *Essentials of English Grammar*. A comparison of Jespersen's book with the *Kaiming English Grammar* will show that foreign students of English may derive as much, if not more, benefit from the latter as from the former.

Compared with many foreign-published English grammars, Lin Yutang's book has one extra merit to recommend itself to Chinese students of English. It not only explains how English differs from Chinese in the way of expressing the same notions, but goes deeper to show how speakers of the two languages often differ in their very notions and introduces the student to the English way of thinking that is new to him. The book might be counted as one of the first serious attempts at a practical comparative or contrastive grammar of English and Chinese, the need for which has been felt for so long.

Despite the "modernity" of the idea behind the book, the *Kaiming English Grammar* suffers from some obvious draw-backs, as is to be expected for a book written nearly half a century ago.

Although the illustrative examples are mostly given in idiomatic English, many of them having been culled from standard English works, the language used would appear

a bit old–fashioned in some cases according to present–day standard. This applies to an even greater extent to the Chinese examples, which would often seem rather odd to today's readers. Some definitions and explanations would also need reformulating.

But the most serious drawback of all is to be found in the "notions" expressed in quite a few of the examples given in the book, which are at times irritatingly trivial and in some cases downright harmful. This defect detracts from the value of the book.

As this is an English grammar intended for teachers and students at advanced levels, no attempt has been made to do away with all such examples in this edition. The editor has done little more than leaving out the more glaring ones besides correcting noticed errors, typographical and otherwise. The old system of transliterating Chinese characters originally used has also been kept intact, partly to serve as a reminder that this is an old book republished for the reader to make a judicious use of.

L. X. H.

April 15, 1982

PREFACE

The Science of Expression

The *Kaiming English Grammar* represents the application of a new philosophy of grammar to the teaching of English grammar to Chinese students. It regards all grammatical forms and constructions as merely means of expressing notions, and grammar itself as a science of expression. Instead of starting from the outward form to the inner meaning, it starts from the inner meaning to the outward form, from the notions to the expression of these notions. Consequently, instead of concerning itself with the definitions and analysis of word-forms and formal changes, it goes deeper into the psychology of the speaker, and asks what are the notions back of the speaker's mind which he is trying to express, and by what grammatical means he expresses them. Grammar, therefore, concerns itself with (1) the notions, and (2) the expression of these notions. To these questions all grammatical changes and constructions are related and made subordinate. This emancipated view of grammar is made possible through the ideas of Benedetto Croce, and, more specifically, through the epoch-making works of Otto Jespersen (*The Philosophy of Grammar,* 1924) and Ferdinand Brunot (*La Pensée et la langue,* 1922).

Chinese and English Compared

In a way, the *Kaiming English Grammar* contains within its covers the adumbrations of a new comparative grammar of the English and the Chinese language. This, again, reduces itself to a comparison of the English and Chinese notional categories and the different means employed to express these notions. The points mentioned, however, are strictly of a practical, rather than theoretical, nature, and are made in order to help the Chinese students overcome certain psychological difficulties. Many common grammatical mistakes can be corrected very easily by this psychological method, and by no other way. Where there are national differences in the notions themselves, the obvious way is of course to train the Chinese students in the new way of thinking. And where common notions exist in both languages, as in the majority of grammatical categories, the most interesting thing would be to show how *differently* the two languages express these notions. English grammar, presented in this way, therefore, teaches the English ways of thinking and expression. The student is constantly made to ask himself this question: If I have a given idea, how shall I express it in English?

Why Mistakes Are Made

The distinction between notions and their expressions is merely a logical, not a real, one. There is no thinking which is not a way of expression, and no expression which is not a way of thinking. We think while we talk, and

many ladies talk in order to find out what they think. The ways of thinking and expression are really inseparably bound up with each other. Consequently, there can be no grammar claiming to teach the expressions which does not at the same time teach the ways of thinking. When grammatical mistakes are made, it is because the ways of thinking and habits of expression are wrong. Mistakes are of two kinds: those due to foreign ways of thinking, found naturally among the foreign students of a language, and those due to other psychological causes, like conflict of ideas, change of mind, human forgetfulness, influence of near-by words, etc. Mere knowledge of rules does not prevent either the foreign student or the native speaker from making mistakes. The only sensible way of teaching grammar and making it effective is, therefore, to regard it as the science of expression and build up certain correct, idiomatic habits of thinking and expression through repeated and systematic drills.

Grammar or No Grammar?

The failure of the teaching of grammatical rules to ensure correctness of expression has caused many people to throw grammar contemptuously aside, and advocate progressive and assimilative reading to take the place of conning over grammatical paradigms. So far as this method emphasizes the building of unconscious habits rather than rigmarole grammar, it is quite sound. The advocate of progressive reading, however, is labouring under a fear-complex, regarding grammar as the student's bugaboo. There is no reason why this should be so, when grammar is regarded, as it should be regarded, as merely a series of systematic drills

on classes of expressions which every speaker must employ. No sane advocate of the reading-without-grammar method would deny that the value of such reading lies really in picking up turns of expression in living contexts, and that by arranging these turns of expression in notional classes and providing systematic drills, the picking up of such expressions can be made much easier and more pleasant. There is no gainsaying the fact that coming across a lone expression here and there and finding its parallels after long intervals is less effective and less convincing than having that lone example immediately reinforced by a dozen other examples of the same class and construction. Put in this way, there can be no argument against grammar.

The Bugaboo of Rules

I should have mentioned a third cause of grammatical mistakes, that due to efforts at "correctness" and fear of breaking grammatical rules. This fear can be carried so far as to override all natural idioms. The poor boy who begins to say "Whom are you?" after having learnt grammar at a night-school, or the Ziegfeld Follies girl who says "between you and I" with some sort of conscious pride is really only labouring under a confusion of mind engendered by the subtle rules of grammar. Even among foreign students, this type of grammar with so many "don'ts" and "shall-nots" is more likely to make the school-boy feel he is treading treacherous ground in a room full of traps and secret doors rather than using plain English to express his ideas. Such abominations as "if war will break out next week" and "I had been sick before yesterday noon" are

only the products of this type of grammar teaching. Psychologically speaking, correctness is the enemy of natural expressiveness, and the teaching of grammar, instead of increasing the student's power of expression, can actually become the nightmare which makes all natural expressiveness impossible.

"All Grammatical Rules Leak"

But there is a deeper logical reason for the futility of rules. It is Edward Sapir, the gifted philologist, who says that all grammatical rules leak. There is nothing harder to bear than the college graduate who has learnt or taught a little grammar, and who, always armed with rules of tense sequence or syntax in much the same sense as a professional lawyer is armed with the articles of a criminal code, jumps upon your perfectly idiomatic expressions, possibly correcting your "let alone..." into a "letting alone...", insisting that it must be a participial phrase, or changing your "the boat sails next Monday" into "the boat will sail, etc." If the incidental remarks contained in this book can help to shake the teacher's faith in rules and reveal the more intimate phases of an Englishman's speech, it will have served some purpose.

A Grammar without Rules

It is time that we replace the categorical rules and equally categorical exceptions with more observation of the living facts of the language. The power of expression can be trained only by learning the expressive, everchanging idioms,

and not by putting on the grammatical strait-jacket. Grammar, as the science of expression, should be more subtle and less rigid; it should address itself more to the speaker's intentions and less to the rules and definitions. It should be more concrete and wallow less in the terms of Latin origin. It should also be more positive and less like a criminal code. It has been the effort of the present author to replace such categorical rules by observations on the present usage. The English language is a living thing, and this is the only way to deal adequately with it. It is hoped that, through this means, the student will form a more intimate acquaintance with modern English usage than is otherwise possible.

It remains only to acknowledge my great debt to all previous writers on the subject who take the same views of grammar as I do. My debt to Prof. Jespersen and his *Modern English Grammar* and *Philosophy of Grammar* will be evident to all users of the said books. I have incorporated his views and examples in this book on many points, although, naturally, I have not dared to go quite as far in the matter of new terminology in a book that is intended for general school use. Thus, I have managed to keep all the eight parts of speech intact, for instance. Above all, I have derived courage from him, as well as from Prof. Ferdinand Brunot and M. Henri Frei, for this somewhat heretical venture. Thanks are also due to the authors of the *Concise Oxford Dictionary* and *Modern English Usage* for enlightening articles and examples.

West End Gardens, Shanghai.
May 26, 1930.

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CHAPTER I

THE SCIENCE OF EXPRESSION

(This chapter may be omitted for less advanced classes; the contents, however, must be fully explained to the students by the teacher, so that they will get a new way of looking at grammar.)

1.10. Something to Say and Way of Saying It.—You have already studied English for three or four years. You know already something about the parts of speech and the forms and relations of words, like singular and plural, subject and predicate, etc. Now we want to make a more general study of the different forms and relations, and this we call the study of English grammar.

Probably you have heard that grammar is difficult and dry. This is not true. It is difficult and dry if you study it in the wrong way, if you try only to remember the rules and definitions. It should not be difficult or uninteresting, if you study the many living idioms and forms of expressions, and find out how an Englishman would express an idea which you have in mind. To study how the English people express an idea, and compare it with the Chinese way is always useful, and sometimes highly interesting.

In everything we say, there are always (1) something to say, and (2) the way of saying it. We shall call the former the **notions,** and the latter the **expression of these notions.** We must understand that grammar has no meaning for us except to teach us about these notions and the ways of expressing them. In studying English grammar in this book,

we shall always ask ourselves this question: If we have this idea, how shall we express it?

1.11. We must understand that **all grammatical forms and constructions are simply ways of expressing notions.** If we have the idea that it's raining outside, we express this in Chinese by saying *hsia-yu la* (下雨了), or perhaps *t'ien hsia-yu la* (天下雨了), and in English by saying *It rains.* But *It rains* means the same thing as *hsia-yu la,* although the way of saying it is different.

If we look closely, we see the English expression has a subject *it,* which is absent in the Chinese sentence. We find also the letter *s* (pronounced [z]) added to the word *rain,* which is also not found in Chinese. But the construction with *it* and *-s* is really only a means of expressing an idea or notion. In the following, we shall find the English language has different grammatical forms for the general idea *It rains:*

It rains.	下雨了。
Does it rain?	下雨了吗?
Is it raining?	正在下雨吗?
It is going to rain.	要下雨了。
Has it rained?	下过了雨吗?
Did it rain?	(昨天)下了雨吗?

You see the changes in *Is it —ing? Has it —ed? Did it —?* are not useless changes of form merely, but are the means of expressing notions. Again take the sentences:

He strikes me. I strike him.

In Chinese, we would simply say:

T'a ta wo (他打我). Wo ta t'a (我打他).

English uses the forms *me* and *him to express the persons* that are objects of the verb *strike*. But in Chinese, we express the same idea just as clearly by always putting the object behind the verb. This word-order in Chinese has the same grammatical value or purpose as the English distinction between *I* and *me, he* and *him*. Sometimes, this object-notion is expressed in Chinese by the use of *pa*, as in *pa men t'ui k'ai* (把门推开, push open the door), *pa jen ta ssŭ* (把人打死, kill the man), and *pa ch'ien ch'iang tsou* (把钱抢走, rob his money). The use of *pa* to introduce the object, therefore, may be regarded as a Chinese grammatical means for expressing the object-notion.

1.20. Grammar as the Science of Expression.—In the above, we have seen already that two languages may express the same notion or idea by different grammatical means. That is why the study of a foreign grammar should be very interesting, because it teaches us to compare the two languages, and helps us to express our ideas in the correct foreign way. Take, for instance, the group of notions called "Number."
We find there are notions of indefinite number, like *more than sixty*, or 六十多, 六十余. Some Chinese students often make the mistake of saying *sixty more*, whereas the correct English way is to say *over sixty*, or *sixty-odd*. The old-style grammars do not teach this, because the old-style grammars are interested only in the *forms* of singular and plural, like *girl, girls / child, children*. They do not bother about the rest when there is no change in word-form. We have to study this expression *over sixty*, because we start from the notion we wish to express, and here is an English expression that we must learn. Again, the old-style grammars teach us that there are three degrees of comparison, like *hot, hotter, hot-*

test / *early, earlier, earliest,* because there are these three changes in word-form. As a matter of fact, there are not only three, but a thousand varying degrees, and as many ways of expressing them, like *less hot, not so very hot, rather hot, just hot enough, too hot, hot enough to burn your fingers, so hot that you can hardly breathe, as hot as a furnace,* etc. All these expressions are as much a part of English grammar as the expressions *hot, hotter, hottest.* Again, among the notions of number, there is the Chinese notion of *ch'eng*(成) or *tenths* and there is the English notion of *percentage*: the correct English expression for *pa-ch'eng-wu* (八成五) is simply *eighty-five per cent.* If we thus proceed form one group of notions to another, we shall soon learn all the important English forms of expression for the chief kinds of ideas and relationships.*

We shall thus study many things that are not found in the old-style grammar books. And in the study of the changes in form, like *It rains, It rained, It has rained, it has been raining,* etc., which are found in the old-style grammars, we shall study them not as empty forms to be repeated and memorized, but as means of expressing some ideas which we have in our mind.

* Of course we cannot study all the expressions in the language, which is the work of the dictionary. The difference between a book of grammar and a dictionary or book of phrases is that grammar deals with only the types or classes of expressions, and the dictionary deals with particular expressions. According to Sweet, grammar deals with the general facts of language, lexicology with special facts. (Henry Sweet, *Collected Papers*, quoted by Jespersen, *The Philosophy of Grammar*, p. 32)

1.30. National Differences in Notions and Their Expressions.—All languages differ in their ways of expressing notions, and no one can say which language is right and which is wrong. All expressions are correct that serve to express our ideas clearly and adequately. *It rains,* with a false subject, is as correct English as *hsia-yu la,* without any subject whatsoever, is correct Chinese. The English and Chinese languages differ both in notions and in their expressions. For instance, in Chinese, we can use the word *pai* both as an adjective and a noun, as in *pai ma chi pai* (白马之白, Mencius), but in English, we have to say *the whiteness of a white horse.* On the other hand, in speaking of rich people and poor people, we may simply say *the poor, the rich* in English, but in Chinese we have to say *p'in cheh, fu cheh* (贫者,富者) besides *pin-min, fu-hu* (贫民, 富户). Again, it is perfectly all right to say *t'a p'a* (他怕, literarily, "He afraid") in Chinese, but in English, we have to add the connecting verb and say *He is afraid.* These are differences in ways of expression.

1.31. Not only are English and Chinese expressions different, sometimes **the notions themselves differ** in the two languages. Thus the vague idea expressed by *should* in *I should think so* is absent in Chinese, and to learn this expression, the Chinese student of English has first to learn the notion itself. This goes back to the English distinction between fact and fancy, and is a way of avoiding stating *I think so* too definitely as a fact. There is the same notional distinction between *It is all right* and *It would be all right,* the latter being a more polite and less cocksure way of saying the former. Many Chinese students can never learn to use these expressions, because they are never taught this

English distinction between fact and fancy.

On the other hand, we can think of Chinese notions which are not found in English. Thus the Chinese tentative action, as in *ta-i-ta* (打一打), or *hsi-i-hsi* (洗一洗), is difficult to express in English, because the English genearally do not have this notion, although they sometimes express it in saying *take a look, have a taste* (=看一看, 尝一尝). Our Chinese ideas of family relationships with a very sharp sense (or notion) of superiority and inferiority and sex distinction, as in the different ranks of brothers, cousins, nephews, uncles and aunts (哥哥, 弟弟, 表妹, 堂姊, 外甥, 侄女, 舅, 丈, 妗, 姨) are difficult to express in English, because the English people generally do not make much of such distinctions. In English, the wife's brother, the husband's brother, the elder sister's husband, and the younger sister's husband are all called brothers-in-law.

1.32. English grammar should, therefore, teach us the English ways of thinking and expression. We should learn to say *the whiteness of a white horse* (not *white of white horse*), *over sixty* (not *sixty more*), *in three minutes* (not *three minutes more*), *I should think so* (not always *I think so*), *It would be all right* (not always *It is all right*) and *the poor* and *the rich* (not always *poor people* and *rich people*). It should teach us always to say *He is afraid* (not *He afraid*), *He becomes tired* (not *He tired*), and always to say *It rains*, instead of the Chinese *Rain already*. To learn these English ways of thinking and expression is the object of our study of English grammar.

1.40. Formal and Notional Grouping of Grammatical Facts.—There are two ways of arranging the facts of grammar and of studying them. One is the old way, and that

is to study the parts of speech one by one, first the nouns, then the pronouns, etc., and learn how each part of speech may be changed in form. Thus we study, for instance, first the changes in nouns due to gender (*tiger—tigress, ox—cow*), or number (*child—children, mouse—mice*), then the changes in pronouns due to case (*he—his—him*) or number (*this—these, that—those*), then the changes in adjectives (*hot—hotter—hottest*), the changes in verbs (*I go, you go, he goes*), etc. This way may be called the **formal way of grouping** grammatical facts, where we chiefly study the changes in form and their meaning. This is looking at grammar from the outside: we start from the outer form to the inner meaning, from the expression to the content.

Another and better way is to look at grammar from the inside, and start from the idea we wish to express to its expression, from inner meaning to outer form. We thus group all the grammatical means of expression according to the class of notions or ideas which they express, like number and quantity, weight and value, modification, comparison and degree, time of action, fact and fancy, relationships, etc. Under each group, we study how these ideas are expressed in English. All means of expressing the same class of notions are studied together, whether they are adjectives, adverbs, pronouns or conjunctions. Thus, under the notion of "Time," we study all the ways of expressing time, including the tenses of the verbs (*come, came, shall come*), the adverbs of time (*always, never, soon, three times a week*, etc.) and the conjunctions regarding time (*until, since, as soon as*), etc. Under the notion "Modification," we study at the same time all the kinds of modifiers, whether they be adjectives (*good* work), adverbs (*well* done), nouns (*an inch* wide), in-

finitives (nothing *to do*), participles (*boiling* water), or word-groups (*Sunday afternoon* concert). This may be called a **notional grouping,** and the different chapters are arranged according to **notional groups or categories.**

In this way, we study the changes of different parts of speech also, but only in connexion with the notions which these changes help to express. For instance, we do not learn the expression *He has returned* just as a form in the "indicative mood, present perfect, third person singular" (as in the old grammars), but as a form expressing a *condition,* and contrast it with *He returned* as expressing an *action. He has returned* means the same thing as *He is at home now,* while *He returned* expresses a totally different notion, viz. that *He took the journey home,* or *He turned back.* Thus we learn in each case how to use the grammatical form studied.

1.41. Outline of the Course.—In this book, we shall follow the second or new way, which is according to notional groups. We shall first study the parts of speech and see how words used in different parts of speech (nouns used as adjectives, adjectives used as nouns, etc.) are changed. This gives us a general idea of the relationship between word-class (part of speech) and word-form, and makes us acquainted with the formal endings like *-cy, -ness, -ly* (*secrecy, goodness, decidedly:* Ch. II). Next we shall study the different moods of sentences, and learn the various ways of making statements or denials, asking questions, giving commands, expressing doubts and hopes, etc. (Ch. III). Next under the general notion of "Things" (Ch. IV), we learn the English distinctions of persons and things, abstract and concrete things, mass-words, personification and gender (Ch. IV).

Then we go on to study the English notions of number, quantity (*much, many, seven per cent*), weight, value (*pound, shilling*), distance (*yard, mile, within call*), position and shape (Chs. V–VI). Then under "Representation" (Ch. VII), we shall study how words may be used to take the place of other words (chiefly covering the pronouns, but including also other ways of representation, as *I told him to,* for *I told him to take the cover off*). Then comes the group of expressions for determining things, as *which one? the one you saw, second, either... or, any old thing,* etc. (Ch. VIII). In Chapter IX, we shall learn all the ways by which words are used to describe or modify other words, and the relations between the modifiers and the modified. In the next chapter (Ch. X), we shall study the different expressions of degree. We come then (Ch. XI) to a discussion of the ideas of "Action", and first come the notional classes called "Aspects of Action" (as *begin to read, keep on reading, make one read,* etc). These ideas must be made clear before we can use the English verbs properly. Then follows a chapter on "Transitive Action" (Ch. XII: relations between subjects and objects, use of active and passive, action of objects, etc.) and next a chapter on "Time of Action" (Ch. XIII: present, past, future, coming after, coming at the same time, etc.). Chapter XIV is devoted to a discussion of the English distinction between fact and fancy (the verbal moods) which is so strange to the Chinese ways of thinking. In Chapter XV, we shall learn the different ways of expressing relationships (chiefly dealing with conjunctions and prepositions, as *since, because, instead of, including, unless, in accordance with, in order that*). We discuss in this chapter also the use of punctuation marks to indicate such relationships. Finally (Ch. XVI, Economy of

Expression), we shall bring together all the English ways of simplifying expressions which often make our sentences easier, more natural and more idiomatic.

1.42. Living Grammar.—By following this plan of study, we shall cover all the material usually found in grammar books, and more besides, but always in close connexion with the English thoughts and expressions. English grammar is thus made living and full of meaning for us. Under the notional head in each chapter, we shall have plenty of time to get acquainted with all the English ways of thinking and expression connected with it, and thus we shall gradually learn to think in English and express ourselves as an Englishman would in his native language.

CHAPTER II

PARTS OF SPEECH AND CHANGE OF FUNCTION

2.10. The Eight Parts of Speech or Word-Classes.

(1) *Nouns* .... dog, book, table, school, John, China, water, sound, work, idea, kindness, strength, anger, danger, order.

(2) *Pronouns* ...... I, you, he, her, who, this, those, which.

(3) *Verbs*............ cut, strike, see, think, breathe, feel, know, grow, be, become, must, will, dare.

(4) *Adjectives*...... good, bad, hot, red, lazy, kind, strong, angry, dangerous, orderly.

(5) *Adverbs*......... how, when, why, where, well, poorly, now, never, soon, suddenly, here, already.

(6) *Prepositions*... in, out, above, under, against, toward, with, without, at, during, by.

(7) *Conjunctions*... and, or, because, although, unless, since, both and, if, then, while.

(8) *Exclamations*... oh! what! ah! there! look! heavens! fire! help! my purse! what a liar!

The above are the so-called **Parts of Speech,** or eight grammatical classes of words. A part of speech simply means a class of words. There are classes of words, just as there are classes of animals or plants. Thus the words *dog, book, China* belong to one class, and *cut, strike, breathe* belong to another, just as we put rats, rabbits and squirrels in one class, and dogs, wolves and foxes in another.

2.11. Definitions.—The purpose of a definition is to help us decide what a thing is and what it is not. The definitions of the parts of speech are to help us decide to what part of speech a word belongs. Such definitions are not easy to find, and are often as inaccurate as grammatical rules. But practically we do feel there are eight classes of words, and the following definitions will be found generally useful. We can best decide to what class a word belongs by looking at its **grammatical function,** i. e., the work it does in the sentence.

(1) Nouns denote things.

A thing may or may not be visible (as *table, sound, grammar*); it may be living or dead (*man, dog, pencil*); it may be an action or event (*a fall, a flood, a dinner, a meeting*), or a condition or an invisible quality (*sickness, beauty, cunning, danger, poverty*).

(2) Pronouns take the place of nouns.

Thus in *John speaks to his mother, but she does not hear him,* the word *she* takes the place of *his mother,* and *him* takes the place of *John.* In *Take this book, don't take that,* the word *that* is a pronoun taking the place of *that book.*

(3) Verbs tell what people or things do. (But the words *is, can, must, will, have,* etc. are also called verbs.)

There is not one definition of the verb which is perfect. Generally a verb is the important word which says something and gives life to the sentence. In *a good man,* the meaning is dead, for we say nothing about the good man, but in *He is a good man,* or *The man is good,* the verb *is* at once gives life to the sentence.

(4) Adjectives modify nouns.

They tell what people or things are like. Both in *a sick man* and *The man is sick*, the word *sick* modifies *man*, and shows what the man is like.

(5) Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives and other adverbs.

Adverbs generally tell how, when, where or why a thing is done. Thus in *He is running fast, He is running now, He is running there*, the adverbs *fast, now, there* modify the verb *is running*. In *very red* and *very soon*, the adverb *very* modifies the adjective *red* and the adverb *soon* respectively.

(6) Prepositions with the nouns following them form prepositional phrases which modify other words. The preposition itself always shows some kind of relation.

There is no preposition which is not followed by a noun or its equivalent, or which does not form a prepositional phrase. In *He is in the house*, we have the prepositional phrase *in the house*, with the preposition *in*. But in *He is in* (meaning "in the house"), the word *in* is regarded as an adjective because it does not have the prepositional function. *In the house* is a phrase modifying *he*. In *He tallks like mad* (like a mad man), the prepositional phrase *like mad* modifies the verb *talks*. All prepositional phrases are used either as adjectival or adverbial phrases.

(7) Conjunctions join words or groups of words.

In *he and I, this or that*, the words *and, or* are conjunctions. In *You may come this way or that way / You may come or you may go / I will not come until you go away*, the words *or, until* join groups of words.

(8) Exclamations (also called interjections) are words which we exclaim.

We make exclamations when we are frightened, angry,

or otherwise excited. *He a gentleman!* (meaning he is not) is as much an exclamation as *oh! ah! what!*

Exercise 1. (I) Give proper adjectives for describing students, a lesson, a dress, eyes, song, food, face, as *a lazy student*, etc. See who can give the best adjectives.

(II) Give some verbs to show what the following persons or things do: child, mother, teacher, student, dog, cat, ship, water, machine, lamp.

(III) Use some verbs to show what you do in the morning before breakfast, after lunch, after school is over, after supper and before going to bed.

(IV) Use the following adverbs in good, short sentences, and tell what they modify: now, quickly, never, always, already, yet, slowly, carefully, suddenly.

(V) Use the following prepositional phrases, and show what they modify. Are they used as adjectives or as adverbs?

1. in the garden	12. along the coast
2. into the water	13. outside the school
3. at once	14. after the class
4. before long	15. during dinner
5. for ever	16. at school
6. at sunrise	17. under the bed
7. near the desk	18. on the tree
8. behind the wall	19. at the beginning
9. for this purpose	20. to the end
10. in what way?	21. by no means
11. for this reason	22. in a hurry

2.12. Grammatical Function.—You see from the above that we determine the part of speech of a word by its grammatical function, or by what it does in the sentence. Of course a word may serve different functions at diffenent times,

just as a father may serve also as a family-doctor, or a wife may work also as a secretary. Thus we see the words *sleep, before* and *back* are used in different functions in the following sentences.

He *sleeps*. (as a vb.)
He talks in his *sleep*. (as a n.)
He walked *before*. (as an adv.)
He walked *before* me. (as a prep.)
He had walked a mile *before* he came to the house. (as a conj.)
At the *back* of the house. (as a n.)
Back parlour. *Back* pay. (as adjj.)
Stand *back!* (as an adv.)
To *back* up a friend. (as a vb.)

In fact, a word may serve a double function at the same time. In *I bought a new hat which you saw this morning,* the word *which* is at once used as a pronoun taking the place of *hat,* and as a conjunction connecting up the words *you saw this morning* with *hat.*

2.13. Chinese and English Compared.—In Chinese, most words may serve in different functions without any change of form. Thus we use *t'ien* as a n. in 青天 (*blue sky*), as an adj., in 天资, 天堂 (*natural gift, heavenly palace*), as an adv. in 天天 (*everyday*), as an excl. in 天啊! (*Heavens!*), as a vb. in 失其所天, when speaking of a woman who has lost her husband (literally, "*loses what she heavens*"), and as a substitute for the pron. *your* in 天颜, when we really mean *your* (or *Your Majesty's*) *face* in speaking to an emperor. In these various functions, the word *t'ien* itself remains unchanged. Compare also the following uses of the word *pai* (*white*): as adj. and n. in 白马之白 (*the whiteness of a white horse*), as a vb. in 自白其志 (*to explain one's mind*), as verbal

adj. in 得大白于天下 (*to have made clear one's position before the public*), as an adj. in the adv. phrase 白昼见鬼 (*to see ghosts in broad daylight*), and finally as an adv. in 白受损失(*to meet a loss without compensation*). Sometimes, we do change the form of the word, as *luan* for *disorderly* as adj., and *luan-tse* in *nao luan-tse* (闹乱子) for *creating disturbance*, or *making a scandal* as a n.

But in English, as a rule, the words change their form with the change in function. E. g., we have *admire*, vb., *admiration*, n., *admirable*, *admiring*, adjj., and *admirably*, *admiringly*, advv. Hence, the Chinese student of English must learn to feel a sense of the different parts of speech before he can use the different forms correctly.

Sense of Function

2.14. Sense of Function.—There are five points in the sense of grammatical function which must be learnt by anybody who wants to speak correct English without difficulty. They are (1) the sense of thing (for nn.), (2) the sense of action (for vbb.), (3) the sense of quality (for adjj.), (4) the sense of manner and aspect (for advv. and adjj.), and (5) the sense of prepositional force (for prepp.). These feelings have not been trained in the Chinese student, because the Chinese language does not demand a vivid feeling of these grammatical differences. For instance, whether a word is a vb. or an adj. generally makes no difference in Chinese grammar, but the Englishman feels the difference between *He fears* (vb.) and *He is afraid* (adj.). The Chinese student must therefore feel the same way as the Englishman does before he can handle the parts of speech correctly and without difficulty.

Through the following exercises, the student will learn to feel the difference between nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and prepositions. The other three parts of speech, pronouns, conjunctions and exclamations are easy to recognize and are not so very different from the Chinese. When these are learnt, the student will find it easy to recognize the part of speech of any word he hears or reads.

2.15. Sense of Thing.—A concrete thing, like *table* or *chair*, is regarded as a n. either in English or in Chinese. But actions (人事), invisible qualities (品性), and conditions (情況) regarded as nn. have peculiar forms which are strange to the Chinese mind. Study the following, and see how the nn. of action and the nn. of quality or condition are used exactly like other nn.

NOUNS OF ACTION

I love books.	I love *reading*.
Have you learnt this?	Have you learnt *swimming*?
The geography lesson is difficult.	*Breathing under water* is difficult.
A pocket-knife is useful.	*Letter-writing* is useful.
He stopped the car.	She stopped *singing*.
I teach grammar.	You teach *dancing*.
The boy slept during the class.	He slept also during the *meeting*.
Then he slept before seven o'clock.	Then he slept before *going to bed*.
He is like his father in his laziness.	This is like *playing with fire*.
You learn to punctuate.	You learn *punctuation*.
We compose sentences.	We learn *composition*.
He is promoted.	We heard about his *promotion*.
You were examined.	You passed the *examination*.
This is easy to prepare.	This requires no *preparation*.

You must not be afraid to repeat your sentences.	*Repetition* is good for you, but don't repeat mistakes.

NOUNS OF QUALITY AND CONDITION

He is poor, but he enjoys his *poverty.*

Lovers are blind, but never mind the *blindness* of the lovers, so long as love lasts.

He is a good man, but his *goodness* cannot help him to pay debts.

"*Goodness*" is such a variable term. According to the servant, a "good" master is one who gives five-dollar tips. A cat that catches mice is a "good" cat for men, but a very bad one for the mice.

His handwriting was so small. I was surprised at the *smallness* of his handwriting.

Cleanliness is as important in a cook as *beauty* in women.

You choose a race-horse for his *speed,* and a cart-horse for his *strength.*

Honesty is the best policy in business, but the worst in war and politics.

2.16. Sense of Action and Quality.—In English, the distinction between vbb. and adjj. is vividly felt. This is the difference between "to do' and "to be," to do an action, and to be a quality.

Action	*Quality*
He studies hard.	He is diligent.
He works hard.	He is hard-working.
He looks handsome.	He is nice-looking.
He fears me.	He is afraid of me.
He likes to sleep.	He is sleepy.
He wakes up.	He is awake.
He grows up.	He is big.
He laughs.	He is happy.

He enjoys.	He is pleased with it.
It rains.	It is rainy.
The sky clears.	The sky is clear.
Day breaks.	It is bright.
Sound frightens.	Sound is fearful.
Prisoner escapes.	Prisoner is free.
Master scolds.	Master is abusive.
Servant fears.	Servant is afraid.
Man recovers.	Man is well.
Something hurts.	It is painful.
Action offends.	It is offensive.

You see with the verbs, we always feel a sense of motion or action, while with the adjectives, we feel a sense of quality, although the two may express the same general idea.

Exercise 2. The teacher will give the sentences with the vbb. and let the students try to give the corresponding sentences with the adjj. (Notice that we always use *is*, or some form of the verb *to be*, before the adj. in the above sentences. The word *be* must be added after *must, will, can*, etc. before adjj. If *to be* is not used, some other verb like *feel, become, grow, get* must be used in the predicate, as *feel sorry*, *become poor*.) E. g.—

You must take care.	You must *be* careful.
You have nothing to eat.	You must *be* (or: *feel*) hungry.
He has gone.	He has *been* away.
Don't work too hard.	Don't be too diligent.
I shall prepare everything.	I shall *be* (or: *get*) ready.

Exercise 3. Put the proper words in the blanks before adjj.—

1. I shall go soon, or I shall soon——away.
2. You must prepare, or you must —— ready.
3. Has he had many things to do, or has he —— busy?
4. You mustn't forget your things, or you mustn't——forgetful.
5. He had done too much work and he —— very tired.
6. Let us enjoy ourselves and —— happy.

7. Please —— more careful next time.
8. He has always —— late.
9. Learn to come in time, or learn to —— punctual.

2.17. Sense of Aspect and Manner.—The sense of manner (情状) which is expressed by adverbs is not new to Chinese. The Chinese expressions with *jan* practically always express the same adverbial function. Thus we have 茫然 (vaguely, in a lost state), 孑然 (alone), 漠然 (coldly), 欣然 (glad, gladly), 霍然 (suddenly), 寂然 (silently), 哑然 (with a roar of laughter), 悚然, 凛然 (with a feeling of awe), etc. But the sense of aspect (方面) is rather new: it is now expressed in modern Chinese with the particles 上 and 的. For instance, we speak of the inequality of the sexes, but we may ask in what respect are they unequal, *physically, mentally, legally, or economically?* This is now expressed in Chinese by 体力上，智力上，法律上，经济上的不平等. We can also think of a person as *physically and spiritually unclean* (心邪形秽), and of a girl as *attractive in appearance and intelligent in mind* (秀外慧中). If a child's father is a great scholar but ugly-looking, while his mother is a silly pretty-looking doll, it makes a great difference *in what respect* the child resembles his father or mother. He may resemble his father in his brains and his mother in his looks, or he may be like the father in looks and like the mother in brains. Adverbs and adverbial phrases of aspect answer the question: *in what regard? in regard to what?* or *in what way?* This notion of aspect is quite important, because it makes our ideas more exact. (Adjectives may also express the same aspect notion.)

You want to be independent—how? *Financially or spiritually?*
In what respect are men and women unequal? *Physically, men-*

tally, socially, legally, or *economically*? Are they equal *in brains, in looks, in courage, in patience, in jealousy, in interest, in babies*?

The Chinese are superior to the English *in patience,* and the English are superior to the Chinese *in political organization.*

Po-liang is better than Chung-ing *in arithmetic,* but Chung-ing is better than Po-liang *in old Chinese.*

Teh-lin is the best boy *in studies* in this class, Fu-ch'u is best *in athletics,* and Kuo-fan is best *in character.*

There is *physical* courage, and there is *moral* courage, the courage to say what one believes.

A man who dare not say what he believes is a *moral* coward.

The student is *physically* weak, but *mentally* strong.

Miss B—— is desirable *as a friend,* but not *as a wife.*

Playing the violin is good *as a pastime,* but not *as a profession.* **Exercise 4.** Learn to use the following expressions:—

1. in what respect?
2. in what way better?
3. in many ways worse
4. in some way useful
5. spiritual progress
6. intellectual laziness
7. (laziness in thinking)
8. bodily strong
9. financially independent
10. politically fre
11. economically equal
12. legally right
13. morally wrong
14. pleasant as a friend
15. good as a pastime
16. useful as a servant
17. kind in heart
18. kind in manners
19. rich in wealth
20. rich in knowledge
21. quick in thinking
22. slow in action
23. charming in appearance
24. attractive in style
25. doubtful in character
26. laughable in conduct
27. great in ideas
28. pleasing in tone
29. good at mathematics
30. great at telling lies

Of course most adverbs express manner, time and place. The adverbs of aspect are less common. but are compara-

tively new to the Chinese as a grammatical notion.

2.18. Sense of Prepositional Force.

Go *with him.*
Go *without him.*
Sing *for me.*
Sing *for money.*
Look *at her.*
Listen *to me.*
Away *with it.*
Run *after him.*
Go *across the street.*
Sit *near the fire.*
Lean *upon the chair.*
Stand *against the door.*
Walk *through the house.*
Look *through the key-hole.*
Say good-bye *before leaving*
He talks *without thinking.*
I am tired *of repeating this.*
Walk *behind me.*
He comes *for his hat.*
He recites *without any mistake.*
She died *because of love.*
He died *because of her.*
Get away *from them.*
Fight *against them.*
Shoot *at it.*
He scolded me *for no reason.*
I am opposed *to his coming.*
They parted *without saying good bye.*
Are you afraid *of being found out?*
He could not come *on account of illness.*
I have not seen him *since that time.*
You will be punished *for doing this.*
We shall fight *against opium.*

In English, the class of words called prepositons are bound up in idea with the nn. following them, very much as transitive verbs are bound up in idea with their objects.

I *fear him.*	I am afraid *of him.*
Fight them.	Fight *against them.*

We should read *of him* as one word, dropping the accent entirely in *him,* just as in *fear him.* Chinese students often read *him, them* too clearly. In grammar, we say the first *him* and *them* are objects of verbs, and the second *him* and *them* are objects of prepositions. We say the prepositions "govern" their objects, just as transitive verbs govern their objects also. If what follows the preposition is a verb or an adjective, it is at once turned into a noun, as "without

saying good-bye," "before *leaving*," "by his *kindness*."

(In prepositional phrases like *for ever, at once, before long, in short, from abroad, by far, like mad,* the words *ever, once,* etc. are considered nn. by some grammarians. See also §2.50.)

Exercise 5. Learn to pronounce the following correctly, and make sentences with them. Fill in nn. after the prepp. in "e."

(a) before him (drop tone)
against them
over them
through it
because of her
one of them
all of us
many of them
after you (*you* may be accented)

(b) during the class
all over the place
since that time
in this way
against my will
in a while
above all
without doubt
beyond any question

(c) before leaving
after reading
after seeing
without knowing
before beginning
after listening
through studying
by working hard
because of having——
for being——
in reading

(d) for ever
at once
before long
from outside
from above

(e) instead of——
on account of——
the news of——
lack of——
for fear of——
followed by——
the result of——
the cause of——
the idea of——

Change of Function

2.20. Change of Function.—We have seen (§2.13) that in English words often change their form when their function

is changed, as *bad, badly, badness,* or *admire, admiration, admiringly.* Since this is new to the Chinese student, he must learn how and when these changes are made. Sometimes, of course, no change is necessary just as in Chinese, e. g., *he sleeps,* and *he talks in his sleep,* and it would be bad English to say *in his sleeping.*

2.21. Nouns Used as Adjectives.*—The use of nouns as adjectives without any change is more common than most of us realize. In this respect, English is quite like Chinese. Study the following:—

stone wall	kitchen door
cannon ball	carriage driver
air castle	paper mill
orange juice	leather factory
straw hat	book company
cloth cover	table-cloth
book-case	sea bath
silk handkerchief	honey-bee
country road	milkmaid
dog Latin (incorrect)	newspaper man
horse-laugh (coarse)	mail man
mouse-trap	home country
fly-paper	hill-path
middle-school student	fire brigade
college president	food problem
Shanghai paper	water problem
Newfoundland dog	school-girl complexion
West Lake Exhibition	student days
Chen brothers	bread-and-butter question
club fee	Pacific Mail Steamship Co.
journey expenses	quinine tablet

*Really nn. used as "modifiers." See Chap. IX.

cable address	University of London graduate
motor boat	North-China Herald Office Building
motor road	

In these phrases the preceding n. is always used as an adj. to modify the following n. The relation between them is quite various: *stone wall* means *wall made of stone*, *honey-bee* means *bee producing honey*, *food problem* means *the problem of food*, and *fire brigade* means *a brigade for fighting fire*. One should learn this kind of expressions because it is simpler, and helps to make simpler sentence constructions possible. Thus it is easier and more natural to say the *nine-o'clock arithmetic class* than to say *the class in arithmetic which comes at nine o'clock*, and it is easier to say *the Pacific Mail Steamship Co.* (or *Co.'s*) *sailing schedule* than to say *the schedule for sailing of the Pacific Mail Steamship Co.* It is better English to say *He owns a paper mill* than to say *He owns a mill for manufacturing paper*. It is more idiomatic to say *motor roads* than to say *motor-car roads* or *roads for motor cars*. *A motor road* is perhaps less exact, logically speaking, because the road is not run by motors, but it is better English.

In this way, English is so much like Chinese. We say *journey expenses* for 旅费, *China tea* for 中国茶, *fly-paper* for苍蝇纸 and *Nanyang College President* for 南洋公学校长. Moreover, this is often the only logical way. It would be wrong to say *fiery brigade*, *watery pipe*, *geographical class* and *tubercular doctor* for *fire brigade*, *water-pipe*, *geography class* and *tuberculosis doctor*. The pipe is not watery, and the class is not geographical, nor is the doctor suffering from tuberculosis himself. In other cases, both forms may be used:

college student or *collegiate student, China tea* or *Chinese tea, Japan tour* or *Japanese tour,* and *South China* or *Southern China.* The use of the adjectival form tends to describe a quality of the object rather than the object itself.

2.22. Nouns Changed into Adjectives.—Besides the above highly convenient way of using nn. as adjj., there are regular adjj. which are formed from nn. by adding certain *endings* or *suffixes*. Following are some of the common forms of adjj. made from nn.

gold............ gold*en* (colour)	ghost...... ghost*ly* (voice)
wood............wood*en* (bowl)	fog......... fogg*y* (morning)
earth............earth*en* (ware)	storm...... storm*y* (sea)
oak............ oak*en* (chest)	cloud...... cloud*y* (sky)
person......... person*al* (use)	wind...... wind*y* (day)
verb............ verb*al* (adjective)	rain ...... rain*y* (weather)
nation......... nation*al* (custom)	drama ... dramat*ic* (literature)
nature......... natur*al* (beauty)	partiot... patriot*ic* (heart)
pig .... pigg*ish* (nature)贪欲	Socrates...Socrat*ic* (dialogue)
sheep .... sheep*ish* (face)赧颜	beard*ed* man
child...........:child*ish* (idea)	nine-head*ed* brid 九头鸟
girl .... girl*ish* (complexion)	round-eye*d* baby
boy............ boy*ish* (fun)	three-legg*ed* cat
self .... self*ish* (motive)	beauti*ful* girl
man............man*ly* (appearance)	power*ful* man
woman ...... woman*ly* (grace)	fear*ful* disorder
gentleman... gentleman*ly* (conduct)	hope*ful* appearance
	shame*ful* look
day ....dai*ly* (experience)	skil*ful* work
week ....week*ly* (visit)	power*less* chief
month.........month*ly* (test)	fear*less* enemy
coward.........coward*ly* (thought)	hope*less* case
miser............miser*ly* (habits)	shame*less* conduct

Exercise 6. Make sentences with some of the above phrases.

2.23. Nouns Used as Verbs.—Some nn. can be used as vbb. without change of form.

They *stoned* him to death.
The gun was *fired.*
Hand the money to me.
We must *back* him up with money.
We must *face* the problem squarely.
He *elbowed* his way into the hall.
Mr. Holmes *eyed* him for a moment.
The party has been well *photographed.*
The judge *questioned* the witness.
He is *named* Peter after his father.

The above examples include only words which usually serve as nn. This verbal use of regular nn. generally comes in to help express an idea which cannot be well expressed by the usual vbb. To "eye" a man (睨视) is to look at him steadily for a moment with curiosity, anger, or suspicion. To "knife" a man (暗计伤人) means also using some underhand method to injure a person. To "doctor" a news despatch (改窜电报) means to change many of its words so as to deceive the reading public. To "monkey" (耍弄) with a watch is to play with it like a monkey, with the possibility of spoiling its machine, and to "ape" (效颦) a man means to imitate him as the ape imitates man.

Besides the above, there are of course a great many words which commonly serve both as vbb and nn., as *a cover, to cover up* / *a quick cure, to cure people* / *some trouble, to trouble a person* / *no desire, to desire,* etc.

2.30. Verbs Used as Nouns.—We have already learnt (§2.15) that actions are often regarded as nn. and that vbb. so used generally have an *-ing* added to them. This is the most common, but not the only way. We may say *Talking*

is easier than acting or *To talk is easier than to act.* The form with *to* is called the **infinitive** of a vb. "Infinitive" means "not limited": it is so called because it expresses a general action and does not "belong" to any subject. It is opposed to the "finite" or limited vbb., which are limited by their subjects, as *goes* in *He goes,* and *barks* in *A dog barks.*

It is very common, however, to use the infinitive in a sentence beginning with *it.* Instead of *To talk is easier,* we may say *It is easier to talk.* Here we seem to say *It is easier,* and then, as if to answer the question *What is easier?* add *to talk.* In fact, it is often easier and more idiomatic to say *It requires a lot of money to build a fine house* than to say *To build a fine house requires a lot of money.* Thus we get three ways of expressing the action as a n.

A. *Talking* is easier than *acting.*
B. *To talk* is easier than *to act.*
C. *It* is easier *to talk* than *to act.*

Exercise 7. Change the way of expressing the following sentences according to the models "A," "B," "C" given above:—

1. *Learning English* is not difficult, if you know how.
2. It is not *reading* that is difficult; it is *speaking* that is difficult.
3. *Studying immediately after lunch* is not good for digestion.
4. *Walking in the sunshine* is good for health.
5. *Fishing* is pleasant for lovers even when there is no fish.
6. *Going to town* is enjoyable when one has plenty of money.
7. *To have nothing to do* is sometimes a nuisance.
8. *Telling a lie* is more difficult than *telling the truth.*
9. It is difficult *to remember the last lie that you told.*
10. There is nothing more awful than *telling a lie to one who believes in you.*
11. There is nothing finer than *to chat with your old friends*

around a fire.

12. *To call oneself a revolutionist* is one thing; *to be one* is another.

The most common form for vbb. used as nn. is still the form with *-ing*, especially after prepp., as *after seeing, before leaving,* etc.

Exercise 8. Try to complete the following sentences:

1. I like ~ing ——.
2. I dislike being —— (past part.).
3. I don't mind ~ing ——.
4. Think of ~ing ——.
5. She always dreams about ~ing ——.
6. His ambition is being a ——.
7. I left after ~ing ——.
8. You must be careful in ~ing ——.
9. Are you afraid of being ——?
10. What is the harm of ~ing ——?

2.31. Verbs Changed into Nouns.—Besides the above general way of turning any vb. into a n., there are some regular nn. which are made from vbb. or are closely related to vbb. Can you give the vbb. for the following nn. and spell them correctly?

preparation	development	supper
dictation	movement	speech
examination	management	food
recitation	government	thought
repetition	seizure	life
composition	pleasure	knowledge
supposition	occurrence	belief
multiplication	trial	receipt
division	denial	success
addition	refusal	loss

admission	betrayal	bath
expulsion	prayer	breath
compulsion	dinner	cloth

2.32. Pairs of Nouns and Verbs.—Many of the commonest vbb. can be used as nn. without any change, and it is important to notice these, because sometimes it would be bad English to use the form with *-ing* in the wrong place.

make a *promise*	have a *talk* with one
go for a *walk*	have a *quarrel*
during his *sleep*	have a hearty *laugh*
in your *studies*	give one a *surprise*
after your *work*	change my *dress*
begin the *review*	*make three jumps*
give a *blow* (*strike*)	tell a *lie*
need more *practice*	has no *push* (魄力) in him
the monthly *test*	has no *pull* (势力) behind him
take some *exercise*	have no *say* (发言权) in the matter
dream a *dream*	
pay a *visit*	in full *swing* (上轨道)

Exercise 9. Take some of the above words and make separate sentences, using them now as nn., now as vbb.

There is a group of pairs of nn. and vbb. which slightly differ from one another in pronunciation, the end-consonant being *soft* or *voiced* in the vbb. and *hard* or *voiceless* in the nn. In the case of [f—v], this difference may be seen in the spelling, but in the case of [s—z], and [ð—θ], the difference is usually not indicated.

Verbs		*Nouns*	
[-z]		[-s]	
use	[ju:z] (利用)	use	[ju:s] (用处)
abuse	[əˈbju:z]	abuse	[əˈbju:s]
close	[klouz]	close	[klous] (寺院重地或学堂的球场)

Verbs		*Nouns*	
excuse	[iks'kju:z]	excuse	[iks'kju:s]
house	[hauz]	house	[haus]
advise	[əd'vaiz]	advice	[əd'vais]
[-v]		[-f]	
halve	[hɑ:v] (对分)	half	[hɑ:f]
calve	[kɑ:v] (生小牛)	calf	[kɑ:f]
shelve	[ʃelv] (搁起档案)	shelf	[ʃelf]
prove	[pru:v]	proof	[pru:f]
believe	[bi'li:v]	belief	[bi'li:f]
[-ð]		[-θ]	
mouth	[mauð] (做嘴势)	mouth	[mauθ]
teethe	[ti:ð] (长牙齿)	teeth	[ti:θ]

The pronunciation with [-z] is most clearly seen in such phrases as *using, use it* ['ju:ziŋ, 'ju:zit], *the housing* ['hauziŋ] *problem.* The distinction between *practise* vb. and *practice* n., observed by careful writers, is only an orthographic distinction: the pronunciation is the same for both words.

Another common distinction between nn. and vbb. is by the shifting of accent. In some pairs of words, this is quite generally accepted already. Following are some common examples:—

Verbs [-'-]		*Nouns* ('- -]	
progress	[prə'gres]	progress	['prougres]
produce	[prə'dju:s] (生产)	produce	['prɔdju:s] (产品)
proceed	[prə'si:d] (进行)	proceeds	['prousi:dz] (得利)
present	[pri'zent] (赠送)	present	['preznt] (赠物)
project	[prə'dʒekt] (凸出)	project	['prɔdʒikt] (计划)
object	[əb'dʒekt] (反对)	object	['ɔbdʒikt] (对象)
subject	[səb'dʒekt] (征服)	subject	['sʌbdʒikt] (臣民)
increase	[in'kri:s]	incerase	['inkri:s]
decrease	[di:'kri:s]	decrease	['di:kri:s]

conduct	[kən'dʌkt] (行，导)	conduct	['kɔndəkt] (行为)
convert	[kən'və:t] (使归正)	convert	['kɔnvə:t] (归正信徒)
digest	[dai'dʒest] (消化)	digest	['daidʒest] (辑要)
dislike	[dis'laik]	dislike	['dislaik]
record	[ri'kɔ:d] (登记)	record	['rekɔ:d] (记录)
import	[im'pɔ:t]	import	['impɔ:t]
export	[iks'pɔ:t]	export	['ekspɔ:t]
rebel	[ri'bel] (反叛)	rebel	['rebəl] (叛徒)
protest	[prə'test]	protest	['proutest]

2.33. Verbs Used as Adjectives: Participles.—You have probably already learnt about the two forms of vbb. called **present** and **past participles.** A participle simply means a word serving in two functions, as vb. and as adj. We can turn any vb. into an adj. by the use of these participial forms.

The present participle is always formed by adding *-ing* to the vb. The past participle is formed by adding *-ed* for the regular vbb. and is quite various for the irregular vbb. **The present participle expresses active or incomplete action, while the past participle expresses passive or complete action.** *Boiling water* means hot water that is still boiling, while *boiled water* means water that has been boiled, which may or may not be hot. We can have iced boiled water, but we can never have iced water that is still boiling. In the same way, *a drowning man* is just going down the water and not dead yet, while *a drowned man* has already been drowned. We can hear cries for help from a drowning man, but not from one who is already drowned. Similarly, *a stirring speech* is a speech that stirs people, and *an excited crowd* is a crowd that has been excited or stirred by the speaker's *exciting speech.* Compare the difference in the following phrases and sentences:—

The book is *interesting.* It interests me. I am *interested* in it.
He was in his room, *preparing* to leave for Paris. He looked sad and silent, *prepared* for the worst.
Taking him for the well-known robber, they put him in prison. He was shut up in prison, *taken* for a robber.

a heart-breaking story—a *heart-broken* girl; a *broken* chair
a growing boy—a *grown-up* man
a terrifying noise—a *terrified* look

a connecting verb—a *connected* speech
suffocating air—a *suffocated* man

running *water*	a *run-away* horse
the *preceding* paragraph	the *following* story
a *crying* baby	*unwanted* children
a *repeating* watch	a carefully *repeated* poem
a *printing* machine	*printed* matter

Exercise 10. Study the following carefully. The teacher will then use expressions with relative clauses and let the students turn them orally into these phrases. E.g., (teacher) *a chair that rotates*—(student) *a rotating chair*; (teacher) *an animal that eats flesh*— (student) *a flesh-eating animal.*

washing-woman	flying carpet
high-sounding speech	man-eating savages
temporarily occupied areas	decided opinion
fast retreating enemies	determined look
above-mentioned words	a changed appearance
well-dressed man	changing customs
clean-shaved face	a long-remembered story
nice-looking girl	his delayed journey
rapidly rising reputation	the cancelled meeting
a laughing face	her divorced husband
a beginning student	your desired object
far-reaching scheme	my beloved son

a subsidized local press	an over-protected child
dying wish	undeveloped resourses
dying father	"sunkist" (sun-kissed) oranges
well-disciplined boys	howling monkeys
on-coming tide	ill-smelling things
roaring fire	dirty-looking things
sickening smell	well-written essays
his broken health	a much-needed book

2.34. Spelling of Participles.—Notice the spelling in the following participles. "A" includes words of one syllable, with one final consonant preceded by one vowel letter. "B" includes words of two syllables, with the same kind of ending, and accented on the second syllable. "C" contains words ending in *-e* in the infinitive, and "D" contains some special cases.

(A)

hop [hɔp]	hopping, -ed [-t]
stop [stɔp]	stopping, -ed [-t]
run [rʌn]	running
put [put]	putting
set [set]	setting
hit [hit]	hitting
quit [kwit]	quitting, -ed [-id]
chat [tʃæt]	chatting, -ed [-id]
can (装罐头) [kæn]	canning, -ed [-d]

(B)

begin [bi'gin]	beginning
occur [ə'kə:]	occurring, -ed [-d]
upset [ʌp'set]	upsetting

remit [ri'mit]	remitting, -ed [-id]
excel [ik'sel]	excelling, -ed [-d]
expel [iks'pel]	expelling, -ed [-d]
compel [kəm'pel]	compelling, -ed [-d]

(C)

save [seiv]	saving, saved
give [giv]	giving, given ['givn]
live [liv]	living, lived
come [kʌm]	coming
use [ju:z]	using, used [ju:zd]
suppose [sə'pouz]	supposing, supposed
compose [kəm'pouz]	composing, composed
believe [bi'li:v]	believing, believed
receive [ri'si:v]	receiving, received
escape [is'keip]	escaping, escaped [-t]

(D)

lie [lai] (说谎，偃卧)	lying, lied *or* (*for* 偃卧) lain
die [dai] (死)	dying, died
dye [dai] (染)	dyeing, dyed
deny [di'nai]	denying, denied
reply [ri'plai]	replying, replied
travel ['trævl]	travel(l)ing, -ed
picnic ['piknik]	picnicking, picnicked [-t]
mimic ['mimik]	mimicking, mimicked [-t]

2.35. Verbs Changed into Adjectives.—Some regular adjj. are formed from vbb. The most common ending is *-able,* or sometimes *-ible,* which gives adjj. similar in meaning to Chinese adjj. 可爱的，可憎的，可怜的，etc. Examples of adjj. with the *-able* and *-ive* endings are:

eat*able*	lov*able*, love*able*	act*ive*
unthink*able*	laugh*able*	talkat*ive*
unbeliev*able*	terr*ible*	possess*ive*
desir*able*	permiss*ible*	relat*ive*
allow*able*	vis*ible* [可看见]	suggest*ive* [含意猥亵]
excus*able*	aud*ible* [可闻见]	extens*ive* [广大]
change*able*	leg*ible* [可读得]	impuls*ive* [躁急]

All these adjj. may be changed again into advv. by adding *-ly*, or changing *-le* into *-ly* (see §2.42).

2.40. Adjectives Changed into Nouns.—We have seen (§2.15) that nn. like *blindness, kindness, strength, poverty* may be formed from the adjj. *blind, kind, strong, poor.* We thus think of these invisible qualities as independent nn. We must learn these nn. because nn. often enable us to make shorter sentences, which are more easily pronounced. *I have no fear of his power* is a shorter and more comfortable way of saying than *I am not afraid although he is so powerful.* And *I do not know its length* is simpler than *I do not know how long it is.* Also *I was impressed by her kindness* saves us the trouble of saying *by her kind words, by her kind tone, by her kind looks,* or *by her kind treatment,* all of which probably do not exactly express what I mean. Probably I really mean that *I was impressed by the fact that she was so kind,* and certainly this is better and more easily expressed by using the phrase *by her kindness.*

Study the following:—

strong ....strength	brave ....bravery
long ....length	savage ....savagery
broad ....breadth	diligent ....diligence
wide ....width	obedient ....obedience
cleanly ....cleanliness	patient............patience

kind ....kindness	ignorant ....ignorance
cold ....coldness	private............privacy
sweet ....sweetness	secret ....secrecy
faithful ....faithfulness	rapid ....rapidity
sorry ....sorrow	stupid ....stupidity
angry ....anger	punctual ......punctuality
hungry ....hunger	real ....reality
proud ....pride	united ....unity
hot ....heat	festive ....festivity

Exercise 11. Use nn. for the adjj. in the following sentences. changing the form of the sentence in any way you like.

1. He ought to be rewarded for being so *diligent.*
2. I am not ashamed that I am *poor.* (ashamed of+n.)
3. He is a *brave* man. I admire him for it.
4. Don't you know she is famous because she is *beautiful?*
5. Everybody knows that he is *proud.*
6. His great defect is that he is so *bad-tempered.*
7. A child should learn to be *obedient.*
8. I cannot understand why he is *absent* for so long.
9. He is so *generous* that he is famous for it.
10. What we want is that we should all be *united.*

2.41. The Poor, the Dead, etc.—The English language has a way of using expressions like *the poor, the rich, the strong, the oppressed* to denote a class of things or persons. This also saves us the trouble of stating exactly what the objects are, and this way of stating a whole class is likely to be more accurate. When we say *the oppressed,* we mean all that are oppressed, whether they are farmers, rickshaw coolies, small shop-keepers, or newspaper editors. Some examples of these expressions are:—

The living and *the dead.* The oppressors and *the oppressed.*

The rich and *the poor.*	Turn to *the right,* to *the left.*
The false and *the true.*	A search for *the unknown.*
The righteous and *the wicked.*	*The young* ought to be housed and fed.
The meek and *the humble.*	None but *the brave* deserve *the fair.*
The lame, the halt and *the blind.*	You are trying *the impossible.*
The modifiers and *the modified.*	

These expressions mean the same thing as *those that are poor, those that are living,* etc., and are very convenient to use. The same ideas are often expressed with the help of the word *one,* as *the young ones, the fat ones,* etc. They correspond to the Chinese notion of 者 in 强者，弱者，贫者，富者，生者，死者，etc.

Sometimes, some adjj. are used as nn. without any change, as *Chinese* for *the Chinese language* or *the Chinese people. You are a dear* is more expressive than *You are dear.* I may also mention the *unmentionables* by which some English ladies mean *trousers.* Other instances are:—

eatables [食物]	sweets [糖食]
drinkables [饮料]	the French [法人]
valuables [贵重物品]	the English [英人]
the ancients [古人]	the whites and blacks [白种人与黑种人]
the moderns [现代人]	the white of an egg [蛋白]
(im)movables [(不)动产]	the white of the eyes [眼白]
the immortals [不朽者]	the green [公共草地]

2.42. Adjectives Changed into Adverbs: the Ending -ly.— In English, adjj. are changed into advv. generally by adding *-ly.* Thus we say *complete ignorance* (adj.—n.), but *completely ignorant* (adv.—adj.); *unusual luck* (adj.—n.), but *unusually lucky* (adv.—adj.). We also say *beautiful singing,* but *She*

sings beautifully. Thus the ending *-ly* becomes a general sign for advv. (compare, however, §2.22, *man—manly,* etc.). The student should remember to make this change when using such adverb modifiers. A good writer generally knows how to use his advv. Compare the following:—

Adjj.+Nn.	*Advv.+Adjj.*
fearful dirt	*fearfully* dirty
awful noise	*awfully* noisy
total ignorance	*totally* ignorant
sudden illness	*suddenly* ill
great surprise	*greatly* surprised
unspeakable joy	*unspeakably* joyful
supreme happiness	*supremely* happy
gradual increase	*gradually* increasing
fatal wound	*fatally* wounded
moral responsibility	*morally* responsible
blissful ignorance	*blissfully* ignorant
rightful place	*rightfully* there
wrong accusation	*wrongly* accused

The words *hard, dead* and *fast* may be used as advv. without adding *-ly,* as *run fast, dead tired, dead asleep, work hard. Hardly* (adv.) has a totally different meaning equal to "almost not." Its meaning is really negative: *I can hardly hear you* means I almost cannot hear you and you must talk louder.

That is *hardly* enough (=*not quite enough*).
I *hardly* think so (=*I almost do not think so*).
I can *hardly* believe it (=*it is diffcult to believe*).
There's *hardly* a soul there (=*almost no one there*).

Scarcely means the same as *hardly.*

Exercise 12. Make sentences with the following:—

1.	think clearly	13.	am dead aganist [极力反对]
2.	act quickly	14.	dead drunk [烂醉]
3.	feel keenly	15.	dead tired [疲极]
4.	walk slowly	16.	scarcely enough
5.	turn quickly	17.	hopelessly ill
6.	can hardly believe	18.	desperately poor
7.	hardly believable	19.	entirely wrong
8.	utterly useless	20.	greatly mistaken
9.	certainly right	21.	awfully busy
10.	easily the first	22.	terribly busy
11.	probably there	23.	divinely beautiful
12.	possibly true	24.	shockingly bad

2.43. Knowingly, Decidedly, etc.—Participles, too, may form advv. with the ending *-ly*. Study the following:

You are *undoubtedly* right.
He is *decidedly* wrong.
Cases of malaria are becoming *increasingly* frequent.
He answered *knowingly* (=in a knowing manner).
He is *admittedly* (or: *confessedly*) a thief.
We saw an *amazingly* clever magician
The people were all talking *confusedly*.
Eat *sparingly* (=don't eat too much).
The letter was *surprisingly* well written (=I did not think he could write it so well).
The King then *reputedly* sent him a cheque for £17,200!

The "e" is pronounced in the *-edly* combination, although it may not be pronounced in the participles: thus *confused* [-zd] and *marked* [-kt], but *confusedly* [-zidli] and *markedly* [-kidli], as in *markedly different*.

2.50. Prepositions Used as Adjectives.—In English, the short words called prepositions are very useful, and one should learn to use them in order to make one's language

idiomatic. Thus *put the dress on* is more idiomatic than *wear the dress,* and *put the light out* is more commonly used than *extinguish the light.* Following are examples of prepp. used as adjj.—

The light is *out.*
The game is *on* (=being played now).
The meeting is *off* (=cancelled).
His mind is *off* (=crazy).
We are *off* at last.
Is he *in* (=in the house)?
No, he is *out* (=not at home).
Dinner is *over* (=finished).
I am *through* with you (=I will have no more to do with you).
She is *up* (=She has got up from bed).
Is the meeting *over* (=finished) now?

There are also some adjj. which are often used like prepp. We may say in *cannot do it like you,* and *do not talk like that,* the word *like* is a prep. and *like that, like you* are prepositional phrases used in adverbial functions. Yet in *It looks like going to rain* and *He is like his father,* the word *like* still has a very clear adjective function. We may call *like* in these cases a prepositional adjective, or an adjective with the prepositional power of governing a noun.* Also the word *near* is often used as an adj. (*He is nearer to us*) and as a prepositional adj. (*The man near her, He is nearer us*).* On the other hand, *far* can never be used as a preposition (*far from here, far from it,* but never *far it*). This shows that language is the product of usage and not of logical de-

*See Fowler: *Modern English Usage,* p. 325, and *Pocket Oxford Dictionary,* under *like.*

*See *Pocket Oxford Dictionary* under *near.*

ductions, and that, in the study of grammar, our work should be based on a careful observation of the many living facts of the language, rather than on a foolish belief in abstract grammatical rules.

2.51. Adverbs and Prepositions Used as Nouns.

The *ups and downs* (=rises and falls) of fortune or landscape.
Have a *down* (=prejudice or dislike) on a person.
Know all the *ins and outs* (=true details).
Go into *whys and wherefores* (=reasons) of it.
We know neither our *whence* nor our *whither* (origin and destiny).
Compare the *pros* and *cons* (Latin prepp. =*for* and *against*).
Once is enough. For this *once.*
The *outside.* The *inside.* The *above.*

Notice also phrases like *for ever, at once, before long, in short, by far, from above, from under* with the words *ever, long,* etc. treated like nn. (§2.18).

2.52. Adverbs, Prepositions and Conjunctions.—In English, the parts of speech prepositions, conjunctions and exclamations (and generally adverbs also), do not change their form. Hence in these words, the change in function does not involve a change in form.

He walked *before.* (adv.)
He walked *before* me (prep.)
He had walked a mile *before* he came to the house. (conj.)

Here the meaning and form of *before* remain the same. Only by looking at its function can we see a difference in its usage in the three sentences. Many advv. and prepp. may be used interchangeably, while a few may serve also as con-

junctions. As there is no change in word-form, this should give the Chinese students no trouble.

He stood *outside* the door. He stood *outside*.
Mr. P—— was sitting *above*. He was sitting *above* me.
Soon the ship went *under*. She went *under* the water.
Mr. Y—— was walking *in front of* me. He was walking *in front*.
He has left *since*. He has left *since* Monday morning. He has left *since* a message came for him.

2.60. Some Interesting Compound-Words.—While we are studying the change in the function and formation of words, it is interesting to notice certain compound-words. In such compound-words, the whole combination may be treated as one word serving one definite grammatical function, without any change in the different parts themselves. This is another point where English is so much like Chinese. Thus we speak of a *three-foot ladder*, or a *go-to-meeting coat* or a *happy-go-lucky policy*. Here the words *happy*, *go* and *lucky* are joined in a manner which is impossible in ordinary combinations. Other extreme instances are *the never-to-be-forgotten affair*, *with an I-turn-the-crank-of-the-Universe air* (as if I were the lord of the universe), and *a comfortable as-it-was-in-the-beginning-is-now-and-ever-shall-be feeling* (a feeling of blessed security), and *the-dog-in-the-manger attitude* (keeping everything for oneself). Thus we have *pickpocket* and *toothpick* just like Chinese 扒手, 牙签, *well-to-do* (adj.) and *ne'er-do-wells* (n.) just like Chinese 小康, 无赖, and *bread-and-butter marriage*, like Chinese 酒肉朋友,柴米夫妻. In fact, such combinations can be made even more freely in English than in Chinese.

ADJECTIVES

commonplace
matter-of-fact
first-rate
up-to-date
out-of-date
five-act (play)
tell-tale (face)
snow-white (dress)
fifty-fifty (basis)
out-of-door (exercise)
dead-alive (half dead and half alive) 半生不死
lighter-than-air (machine= air-ship)
heavier-than-air (machine=aeroplane)
peace-at-any-price (policy) 不顾一切之主和政策
the-king-can-do-no-wrong(young man) 相信皇上无不是之青年
eighteen-shillings-a-week (income)
hand-to-hand (fight)肉搏
every-man-for-himself (scuffle)人自为战
life-and-death (struggle) 殊死战
do-what-you-can-and-take-what-you-need (policy) 各尽所能各取所需之政策

NOUNS

a cut-throat 凶汉
a pickpocket 扒手
a pastime 消遣
a make-believe 自欺欺人之事
a stop-gap 权宜之计
your own lookout 自作打算
a Godsend 天送来
an eyesore 眼中钉
a die-hard 死守党
an at-home 在家接客之茶会
a wash-out 大失败
quick turnovers 货物易销，翻转的快
no give-and-take (=no exchange)
the goings-on (=proceedings)
the whereabouts (=where a man is)
and what-not (=things that take too long to mention)
mother-of-pearl (a kind of shell)
too many shall-nots
the also-rans (=horses that also ran, but failed to place in races

ADVERBS

outdoors, indoors
downstairs, upstairs
maybe
offhand
underhand
beforehand
willy-nilly (=whether he will or not)

VERBS

out-distance 越过
ear-mark 加耳号，指拨
dumbfound 使目瞪口呆
backbite 背后毁谤
double-cross 以诡计卖友
cross-question 讯问，对诘
visé, visa (*p.p.* viséd or visé'd, visa'd)
O.K. (*p.p.* O.K.'d)
a hen-pecked husband
Mr. Solmes'd him (=called him Mr. Solmes)

CHAPTER III

SENTENCE MOODS

3.10. What is a Sentence?—When we say *a red rose,* this is not a sentence, because we feel there is only a group of words which does not say anything. What about the red rose? If we say, however, *The rose is red,* we feel we do say something and the meaning is complete. We say, therefore, that *a red rose* is not a sentence, but *The rose is red* is a sentence. Similarly, in *Here's a red rose, The red rose smells sweet,* or *Her face is like a red rose,* we feel each is a sentence, because each says something and the meaning is complete in itself. If we look carefully, we find it is always the verb (*smells, is*) that gives life to the whole sentence. On the other hand, in *a red rose,* the meaning is dead, because there is no verb.

But suppose a man should tell you suddenly that your house has been burnt down, you naturally exclaim "What!" There is no verb in the exclamation, and yet don't we feel *What!* is a complete expression expressing a complete meaning? The man who first sees the fire would most probably exclaim "Fire!" and the man upstairs in the house, on hearing the cry, would also cry out "Help!" All these are complete and independent expressions. They express their meaning fully and clearly. We should not say *Fire!* or *What?* is not a sentence because there is no verb in it. Grammar is made for language and not language for grammar. Living language

is not always like a school exercise. In actual speech, we do often use expressions that contain no verbs in them, and yet the meaning is as complete as in any sentence. Sometimes the verb is understood (not expressed), but this is not always true. We may say, for the sake of grammar, that *Fire!* is really *There is a fire* shortened. But this is psychologically not true: when we cry out "Fire!", we really only want to call people's attention to the fire. We may mean *There is a fire,* but we may also mean *Let everybody go and fight the fire* or we may mean *Oh! now my property is all gone, and what shall I do?* Our real meaning is just that word *fire.* Also, ordinarily, *a red rose* is not a sentence, but in answer to the question "What have you got in your hand?", "A red rose" is a good, clear and complete answer. Again, after arranging with a friend to meet again on Saturday morning, we may say before parting:—

All right. *Or*——
All right. Saturday morning at ten. *Or*——
All right. Saturday morning at ten in the North Sation and no mistake.

All this is perfectly good English, although in written English, we generally try to put in the proper verb. In the same way, we have the following colloquial expressions:—

Your turn. (=Now it is your turn.)
Next! (=Next boy, stand up, etc.)
Splendid! (=That's good! Well done!)
How so? (=How can it be?)
A drink? (=Do you want a drink?)
Nothing doing. (= I will never do it.)
My mistake. (=It's my mistake: it's not your fault.)
Light, please. (=Please turn on the light.)

Danger ahead! (=Drive slowly.)
The idea! (=How can you, he, etc. think of such a thing?)

Since there are such colloquial expressions, we must say that a sentence is simply a complete and independent expression. Any complete and independent expression may be called a sentence.

3.11. Importance of Finite Verb.—The above cases, however, are exceptions. Generally, a sentence must have a verb in it. In answer to the question "What have you got there?", the answer "A red rose" is quite complete. But usually, *a red rose* says nothing and cannot be called a sentence. Likewise, *Soochow-Nanking* is not a sentence, but only a group of words. *I go from Soochow to Nanking* is a sentence, because here the finite verb (2.30) gives life to the sentence and connects the parts into a whole.

We must remember to **use a verb in every sentence,** because this is an important English habit, and because Chinese students often forget it. Adjectives and participles (vbb. changed into adjj.) alone cannot say anything. We can say *He dies* (vb.), but not *He dead* (adj.). We must say *He is dead.* Nor can we say *The man playing in the garden* as a sentence, but we must say *The man is playing,* etc.

Exercise 13. Supply vbb. like *is, feel, become, get, grow,* etc. in the following sentences:—

1. —— you fifteen years old?
2. I —— sick for a long time.
3. My father —— very angry with me.
4. Soon we —— very tired.
5. The baby cries when it —— hungry.
6. The students —— returning from school.

7. Her sister —— more beautiful than she.
8. The girl's toy —— broken, and she —— very sorry.
9. She —— weaker and weaker on account of illness.

Sentence, Phrase and Clause

3.20. Subject, Predicate and Principal Verb.—If we analyze any sentence, we find we have a subject and a predicate. The subject is what we talk about, and the predicate is what we say about the subject. Thus in *The rose is red, rose* is the subject of the sentence, and *is red* is the predicate. In *Open your books,* the subject *you* is understood, and *open your books* is the predicate. The important word in the predicate is always the principal verb.

Exercise 14. Find the predicate and principal vb. in the following:—

1 The kite flies in the air. (The answer to the question "What about the kite?" gives the pred.)
2. What makes the steam-engine run?
3. George O'Brien knocked the fellow down.
4. Please show him the way.

3.21. Direct and Indirect Objects.—Some predicates contain objects of the principal verbs. In the first sentence above, the vb. *flies* has no object. In the second, *steam-engine* is the object of the vb. *makes.* In the third, *fellow* is the object of the vb. *knocked.* And in the fourth sentence, we have two objects, (*show*) *him,* and (*show*) *the way.* Here the meaning is the same as *Please show the way to him.* A person (or sometimes a thing) for whom or to whom a thing is done is called the indirect object of the vb. Find out the direct and indirect objects in the following:—

1. Give me that book, please.
2. Tell your mother everything you have done.
3. Will you return me the money I lent you?
4. Miss Yang paid her friend a visit last month.
5. Will you do me a favour?
6. His father bought him a new hat.
7. My brother made me a kite.

3.22. Sentence Structure: Modifiers and Conjunctions.—We have seen that the important parts in a sentence are the subject, the principal vb., and sometimes also the object. This is clear and easy to remember. All sentences are made up this way, no matter how long they are. They are sometimes very long because we add words or groups of words to modify the subject, the vb. or the object, and join these groups by conjunctions. So we can classify all parts of a sentence into these five kinds: (1) subject, (2) principal verb, (3) object, (4) modifiers, and (5) conjunctions. The sentence—

"The dirty boy plucked a beautiful red rose in your garden this morning, and was caught."

may be analyzed as follows:—

Subject——boy.
First verb——plucked.
Second verb——was caught.
Object of 1*st verb*——rose.
Modifier of subject——the, dirty.
Mofifier of 1*st verb*——in your garden, this morning.
Modifier of object——a, beautiful, red.
Conj. joining the 2 *vbb.*——and.

It will be remembered that adjj., advv., and prepositional phrases are always used as modifiers. Exclamations are re-

garded as independent parts in the sentence, as *Ah! here he is.* The structure of the English sentence is really as simple as this, and if we remember these five kinds of sentence parts, we can understand the structure of English sentences better.

Exercise 15. Find out the subject, principal vb., object, modifiers, and conjj. (if any), in the following sentences, and show what the modifiers modify. In *The carpenter paints the door red, red* modifies the object *door.* In *My uncle grew angry, angry* modifies the subject *uncle,* and in *He was considered lost* (*They considered him lost, lost* modifies the subject *he.* So words inside the predicate may modify the subject.

1. Columbus discovered America by luck.
2. Magellan sailed around the world.
3. Magellan made the first sailing trip around the world.
4. He got angry with me, and called me an impossible fool.
5. The sun rises in the morning and sets in the evening.
6. He left home for a long time, and was considered dead by his family.
7. Spell your words correctly, and copy them with ink, not with pencil.
8. Meet me at ten o'clock tomorrow morning.
9. I saw him crossing the street.
10. He was seen walking with Miss C——.
11. The detective came too late, and found the thief gone and the room quite empty.

3.23. Phrase and Clause.—Parts of a sentence which have a subject and predicate are called clauses, and those which don't are called phrases. A clause is thus like an independent sentence in structure; it is in fact a sentence within a sentence. A phrase is simply a group of words without any finite verb. A clause is always connected with

the rest of the sentence by some conj. Study the following clauses in italics, and notice the conjj. introducing them.

1. *If you do not find him,* come back and tell me.
2. He was on his way back *when he met Mr. Atkinson.*
3. I shall always remember *how he treated me, as long as I live.*
4. *That he was killed* is certain.
5. *Why he went away* nobody knows.

Find out the subject and principal vb. in each of the above clauses.

A phrase may be a prepositional phrase (beginning with a prep., as *in the garden, by his family*), an infinitive phrase ("to" followed by a vb., as *to see it, to be seen*), a participial phrase (beginning with a participle, as *crossing the street, singing a song*), or any combination of words that does not contain a finite vb. For instance, we have the phrases *as soon as* (conj.), *once upon a time* (adv.), *on account of* (prep.), etc.

Phrases and clauses are used as nn., adjj., or advv. just like single words. Generally they are used as nn. or as modifiers (adjj. or advv.). The noun clause will be studied in Chapter XII, while all the important phrases and clauses used as modifiers (the infinitive, prepositional and participial phrases and the relative clause) will be studied in the important chapter on Modification (Ch. IX).

Sentence Moods

3.30. Sentence Moods.—One way of studying the English sentence is to learn how the various sentence moods are expressed, such as the moods of questioning, affirming, denying, commanding, and those expressing doubt, hope, wish, promise, etc. It is hard to say exactly how many sentence

moods there are: they vary as much as our moods or feelings vary. But, for the sake of convenience, we may say there are the following five main kinds: **(1) Affirmation, (2) Negation, (3) Interrogation, (4) the Potential Moods** (of command, wish, promise, etc.), and **(5) Emotional Utterances** (or **exclamations**). The study of these sentence moods teaches us, (1) how to state a fact, (2) how to deny, (3) how to ask questions, (4) how to express a wish, a supposition or anything that may or may not be fact, and (5) how to make exclamations in English under the stress of emotion.

3.31. Chinese and English Compared: Chinese Modal Particles.—A foreigner studying the Chinese language would have also to study the various Chinese sentence moods. He would find that the Chinese largely use modal particles (or particles expressing a mood, a kind of "empty words" or "form-words" 虚字, as against "substance-words" 实字) to express the different sentence moods, which are expressed in English largely by the verbs. Thus we use *ma* (吗) to express the questioning mood, *ni* (呢) to express the question of unbelief, refutation, or disagreement, *la* (了) to express the sense of completion, *pa* (罢, 吧) to express final decision or command, etc. These particles always come at the end of the sentence. Sometimes these moods are expressed by conjj. or advv. in the beginning or middle of the sentance, as *nan tao* (难道) for expressing disbelief, *chueh* (却) for expressing admission, *liao-hsiang* (料想) or *tsung* (总) for expressing a supposition or conjecture, etc.

The following are examples:—

你也要去吗?	Are you going, too? .... (*Question*)
他何必这样呢?	Then why should he do so?.........(*Refutation*)

十二点了。	It's twelve o'clock already.........(*Completion*)
我早已知道了。	I knew it long ago........................(*Past*)
走罢。	Let's go. Be gone!.....................(*Decision*)
算了罢。	Have done with it!...............(*Finishing off*)
难道他没看见我么?	Could it be that he didn't see me?...(*Disbelief*)
他却有点难过。	He did feel a little ashamed.........(*Admission*)
料想他总不至如此罢。	I don't think he is as bad as that...(*Conjecture*)

Affirmation

3.40. Affirmation: I Do, I Am.—Affirming, or stating a fact, is the most general form of a sentence. Thus in such simple sentences as *He goes, It rains, The king is pleased,* or *I have been away,* we are making an affirmation or a statement. In English, the verb is the important word used in making a statement. Thus, in *He is a thief,* the real important word that affirms is the word *is,* and in *He sells his house,* the affirming word is the vb. *sells.* The vbb. *is* and *sells* represent the two big classes of vbb. from the point of view of affirmation, viz. **(1) the vbb. of doing, and (2) the vbb. of being.** In fact, almost all English vbb. are considered as vbb. of doing, and only the various forms of the vb. "to be" (*is, was, are, were*) are considered as vbb. expressing "being." This is quite an English way of thinking, new to the Chinese student. Thus, we may substitute the vb. "do" (with its various forms, *did* and *does*) for almost any vb. E.g., in answer to the question "Does he sell his house?", we usually say, "Yes, he *does.*" And the same may be applied to any vb. of doing. Study the following statements:—

(A) THE VBB. OF DOING:

I *believe* in him. Indeed I *do.*

Tsu-fah *comes* to borrow money again. He always *does*.
You *wear* a straw hat in winter. You ought to know that it is not proper to *do* that. You never see people *doing* it except yourself.
Did you *meet* him?——Yes, I *did*.
Did you *speak* to him?——No, I *didn't*.
Shall I *bring* you today's papers?——Please *do*.
I don't *like* geography. Really I *don't*.
You are the only one that *likes* my writing. Others *don't*.
Do you *promise* to take her for your wife?——I *do*.

(B) THE VB. "TO BE" (followed by adjj. or participles):

Do you think he *is* a real scholar?——I don't think he *is*.
Some of them *are* asleep, and some *are not*.
I suspected that he *was* in love, and now I know he *is*.
You say that she *is* the daughter of a cook. Well, what if she *is*?
I admire great speakers. I like to *be* one myself.

Exercise 16. Read the above sentences again and again. Then the teacher will say the first part, and let the students supply the second part orally.

3.41. Can, Will, Have, Must, etc.—From the above, we see already that the words "do" and "be" are the words we use in order to make an affirmation, a denial, or an interrogation. "To do" and "to be" are called **auxiliary or helping verbs.** In fact, we chiefly depend upon these helping vbb. in forming all sorts of affirmative, negative and interrogative sentences. There are other helping vbb. like *have, will, can, may, must, dare, need*, etc., and these, too, are often used for the same purpose as *do* and *be*. Repeat the following sentences with the words *can, must*, etc. stressed:—

Can he or *can* he not get the things ready?——Yes, he *can.*
My wife does not want me to go, but I *must.*
You are free to go. You *may* if you want to.
He thinks I have not yet prepared my lesson, but I *have.*
"You *shall* not come this way." "But I *will.*"

3.42. Affirmative Replies.— We generally use "yes" in affirmative answers. But it is often desirable to make better answers than the blunt "yes." Every language has various ways of expressing agreement, and politeness requires that we say something more than a mere "yes" when answering to any request. Following are some examples:—

May I see this book? ....*Certainly. Of course.*
Can I have a cigarette? ....*Why, certainly.*
May I smoke here? ....*Please do.*
Could you let me talk with you for a
moment? ....*With pleasure.*
Shall I shut the door? ....*If you please.*
So I have to take care of her? ....*Quite so.*
Am I to hand in the exercises tomorrow? *Exactly.*
You will do everything I wish? ....*Absolutely.*
And she is your sister's daughter?...........*Quite right. You are right.*
Does he know you are living here? ....*I think so.*
Can I stay in school during the spring
vacation? ....*Yes, if you like.*
Shall I tell her to come and see you? ...*By all means. Yes, if she wants to.*

Exercise 17. The teacher will give some questions, and let the students use some of the above phrases for answers.

3.43. Qualified Assertion.—Both politeness and care for exactness of expression require that we often qualify our

assertions with *I think, I am afraid, it seems,* etc. What *you think* is a bad man is quite different from just a bad man, and what *seems* to be all right may not be all right. The phrases, *it seems, I think, I believe* (and the American *I guess*) are often inserted into the sentence as qualifying phrases, either at the beginning, the middle, or the end.

I think I can do it myself.
This can do you good, *I think.*
That is, *I think*, too much for me.
I don't think she will come by six.
He is gone, *I believe.*
I believe he is gone.
I believe I'd better go.
Then *you don't believe* it is true?
It seems she is unhappy.
She is unhappy, *it seems.*
She *seems to* be unhappy.
It seems to me that she is unhappy.
You *seem to* think ....
It doesn't seem to be of any use to any one.
They *seem to* like each other.
Apparently, they like each other.
How old *do you think* I am?——You are eighteen, *I suppose*?
Can you come to dine with us?——No, *I am afraid* I can't.
You have been to Nanking, *if I am not mistaken.*

Exercise 18. Make some sentences with some of the above phrases.

3.44. Emphatic Assertion.—Sometimes we want to emphasize a statement or assertion. This may be done by a special use of the vb. *do;* by the use of certain advv., by double negatives (§ 3.45) and by a method of interrogative affirmation (§ 3.46). *I do feel sorry for him* is an emphatic

way of saying that *I feel sorry for him.* Other examples are:—

> *Do tell* me everything you know; otherwise I cannot help you.
> 'Tisn't (=It isn't) that he doesn't know it. He *does know* it, but he does not want to let people know.
> You need not lie to me. You *did go* to that place, and many people saw you there.

The word *do* or *did* is always stressed in these places. Ladies are especially fond of using this form of emphasis even when no great emphasis is meant. E. g.—

> Please *do write* me often.
> I *do hope* that you will quit drinking.
> I *do fear* something is wrong, dear.
> *Do be* kind to this poor little boy.

Sometimes we show emphasis by merely stressing the verb. Sometimes various advv. are used. The force of *I am sure* is already weakened by constant use, so that *I am sure you will find him* is actually less assertive than the short categorical statement *You will find him.* Generally the shorter a statement is, the more forceful it is. *I dare say* is even weaker, and simply means "It is quite possible," or "You are probably right." The Americans are very fond of using *you bet,* or *you bet your life* or *sure* (with long–drawn–out pronunciation like sh–oo–r) as a means of assertion or affirmation.

> You *are* funny. (Emphasis by stress or accent.)
> Do I look like a banker only? I *am* a banker. (Said by a self–satisfied merchant.)

> You ask me whether I am going to see the show? *You bet* I am. (Or, one of the following forms:) *Why, of course,* I am. *Certainly* I am. *Sure* I am.

You are *indeed* funny. You are *really* funny.

May I have your dictionary for a moment? —— (1) *Why, certainly.* (2) *Certainly.* (3) *Of course.*

I am sure you will like the book.

No doubt,
There is no doubt,
Undoubtedly,
Beyond a doubt,
Beyond any doubt,
Beyond all question,
Without any question,
} he is the greatest living author in China.

As sure as eggs is eggs. (=Undoubtedly.) (common form of assertion)

Exercise 19. Make sentences with some of the following advv. or adv. phrases: *undoubtedly, unquestionably, decidedly, no doubt, beyond any question, indeed, certainly, I am sure*, etc.

3.45. English Reticence and Double Negatives.—The English are a reticent nation, and they have reserved forms of saying things which in other languages might be expressed by rather strong advv. *Not half bad* is what Americans would express by *Isn't that lovely?, Isn't it grand?* or what a Frenchman would express by *ravissant* (*ravishing, delightful*), and is the equivalent of Chinese *hao chi la* (好极了). According to a great authority on the English language, *She is rather good-looking* (literally, 还好看) is the strongest praise you can draw from an Englishman for a woman's looks. And where a Frenchman would say *extremely* or *infinitely* (*extrêmement, infiniment*), an Englishman says only *very* or *rather* or *pretty.** The use of double negatives is often one of these reserved

* Otto Jespersen: *Growth and Structure of the English Language*, p. 2.

forms of showing emphasis. *By no means bad* means *rather good indeed,* and *not half a bad fellow* means *quite a nice fellow. He didn't half swear* means *He swore violently. A not undistinguished guest* means *a very distinguished guest* and *He was by no means unwelcome* means *He was greatly welcome.* See if you can use the following phrases:—

1. there is no one but knows (=*every one knows*)
2. not inferior (=*quite up to the mark*)
3. spent no small amount (=*spent a great deal*)
4. was not indifferent to (=*did care for*)
5. a not too clean shirt (=*dirty shirt*)
6. none too kind (=*rather unkind*)
7. none too good for him (=*rather bad for him*)

The Chinese language has also expressions like 未可厚非 (*not to be blamed too much,* or *quite excusable*), or 不为无故 (*not without reason, with good reason*). This use of double negatives is sometimes quite expressive and useful, but is after all rather roundabout, and may sometimes seem affected or unnatural. For *I ain't got nothing,* see § 3.56.

3.46. Affirmation by a Retort Question.—This way of asserting a thing by asking an obvious question is quite common in all languages. A. may ask B. "Do you love her?" The most emphatic answer B. could give would be, "Do I love her?" The force of his retort question is "Is it necessary to ask? Do I love myself?" Very often, too, we put the assertion or affirmation in the form of a simple question, as *Isn't it pretty?,* meaning *How pretty it is!* This kind of question is really a kind of exclamation. The word *why,* added to the beginning of a sentence, is also only a means of emphasis, meaning *of course, naturally, it is not necessary to ask, why*

do you ask that question?

If he should lose, *why*, he has millions in the foreign banks, and can go and live in the foreign concessions.

If the other generals accuse me of "squeeze," *why, don't they* do the same?

Why, of course. Take all you want. I would be only too glad to help you.

Why does he ask about me? *Doesn't he* know me?

(A mother may say:) *Haven't I* nursed him from his childhood, fed him, cared for him, and brought him up, and given him a chance in life? *Haven't I* sacrificed my whole life for him? And now you ask, "*Do I* love him?"

How dare you say such a thing against your own mother?

Am I the boss, or *is he* the boss? (How dare he interfere with my business?)

Negation

3.50. Negation.—Like affirmation, English negation largely depends on the use of the helping vbb. *do, be, can, shall, may, must,* etc. with the adv. *not*. Even more than the affirmative sentence, the negative sentence depends on the word *do*. In fact *do not* (with *did not, does not*) is the commonest form used. Ch·nese students should learn from the very beginning to use this form, instead of saying *He not knows,* or *He not comes,* which is a literary translation of Chinese 他不知, 他不来. The difficulty lies in remembering to use the word *do,* and in the changes in the vb. which go with it. Thus we have—

AFFIRMATION	NEGATION
I *come* (*go, play*).	I *do* not *come* (*go, play*).
I *came* (*went, played*).	I *did* not *come* (*go, play*).
He *comes* (*goes, plays*).	He *does* not *come* (*go, play*).

The forms *cannot, are not, will not, must not,* etc. offer no difficulty. *Can not* is the emphatic from of *cannot.* The changes *came* and *did come, comes* and *does come* occur also in the question, so that we can have the following forms for practice:—

	PRESENT		PAST
(A)	He comes.	(A)	He *came.*
(B)	*Does* he *come*?	(B)	*Did* be *come*?
(C)	He *does* not *come.*	(C)	He *did* not *come.*

Notice also that we say (1) *He need not come, He dare not come,* but (2) *He needs to come, He dares to come,* and (3) *Dare* (*Need*) *he come?* or *Does he dare* (*need*)*to come?*

Exercise 20. Practise the following orally, until you can do it naturally and without mistake. Vary the sentences according to the three forms "A," "B," and "C":—

1. He knows that I am here.
2. They saw me on Nanking Road.
3. He heard the shot.
4. You spoke to that fellow on the way.
5. They all ran away when the police came.
6. The teacher saw me, but did not see him. (The teacher did not —— me, but —— him).

3.51. Aren't, Isn't Mustn't etc.—Regarding the pronunciation of helping words plus *not,* some practice is necessary. Some students have learnt English for many years without

knowing how to pronounce these short forms correctly, and thus make their pronunciation unnecessarily complicated. The word *not,* when not contracted with the helping vbb. is never slurred, but always retains the "short o" pronunciation. *Ain't* for *is not, are not, am not, have not* (as shown below in the last example) is, however, not accepted in the language of educated people.

mustn't	[ˈmʌsnt]	[ˈmʌsn]	You *mustn't* say so.
don't	[dount]	[doun]	I *don't* know.
doesn't	[ˈdʌznt]	[ˈdʌzn]	That *doesn't* matter.
isn't	[ˈiznt]	[ˈizn]	That *isn't* true.
wasn't	[ˈwɔznt]	[ˈwɔzn]	I *wasn't* there.
aren't	[ɑ:nt]	[ɑ:n]	They *aren't* so bad.
weren't	[wə:nt]	[wən]	We *weren't* going to do it.
can't	[kɑ:nt]	[kɑ:n]	I *can't* do it. ([kænt] in American
won't	[wount]	[woun]	He *won't* tell me ⌊speech)
shan't	[ʃɑ:nt]	[ʃən]	You *shan't* go away yet.
needn't	[ˈni:dnt]	[ni:nn]	You *needn't* be afraid.
didn't	[ˈdidnt]	[dinn]	That *didn't* do any good.
wouldn't	[ˈwudnt]	[wunn]	It *wouldn't* be wise to take such a
shouldn't	[ˈʃudnt]	[ʃunn]	Why *shouldn't* he go? ⌊step.
couldn't	[ˈkudnt]	[kunn]	That *couldn't* be done.
ain t	[eint]	[ein]	"I *ain't* done nothing wrong by speaking to the gentleman," said Liza, the flower girl.

To say *mustn't* [ˈmʌsn], as in *You mustn't do a thing like that* is easier and nicer than to say *must not.* It is very important, therefore, **that one** should learn to pronounce these contracted forms.

Exercise 21. Practise on the pronunciation of the following—

1. She *won't* ask me for money.
2. It *couldn't* be true that he was a traitor.

3. I *shan't* do it, anyhow.
4. Repetition is good, but you *mustn't* repeat mistakes.
5. You can write poems, *can't* you?
6. *Isn't* he your bosom friend?
7. They *needn't* go to his office now.
8. *Didn't* your brother tell you so?
9. Some boys are studying, and some *aren't.*
10. *Wasn't* it a good idea to go to the Taishan Mountains and look at the sunrise there?
11. Miss Wang *doesn't* want to play volley-ball.
12. You like to have a sea bath, *don't* you?

3.52. No, Not a, Not Any, Nothing, etc.—We generally say *There is no one,* but *There is not any one,* and *I have no money,* but *I cannot pay. No* is thus used as an adj. before nn., and *not* is used as an adv. When there is a noun, it is better to use *no.* It is better to say *There is no one* than to say *There is not any one.* The form with *no* is often more emphatic. Thus *That is no easy task* is more emphatic than *That is not an easy task.* In this way, we get the common expressions, *no good, no fun, no use.*

The pen is *no good.*	It is *no use* talking (or to talk).
That's *no fun.*	Talking is *no use.*
This camera is *no use.*	It's *no go* (=nothing can be done).

This Camera is no use is more expressive than *This camera is not of any use.* Some careful writers like to say *This camera is of no use,* but they never say *That's of no fun.* Instead of saying *I do not know anything,* or *I do not know anybody,* we can say, of course, *I know nothing,* or *I know nobody.* It is shorter and easier.

Exercise 22. Use *no, nobody, nothing, none* in the following sentences and change them in any way you like:—

1. I have not received any answer from him.
2. I have not seen any Chinese in this city.
3. They do not know any way to solve the problem.
4. He doesn't have money to pay me.
5. I tell you I do not have any lover.
6. I asked him but he could not tell me anything.
7. Don't tell this to anybody (any one).
8. This fountain pen cannot be of any use to me.
9. Is this watch any good? (Answer in the negative.)
10. Does any one know of your coming? (Answer in the negative.)

3.53. Few, a Few, Little, a Little.—In English, the meaning of *few* and *little* is negative, while that of *a few* and *a little* is affirmative. When you come to borrow money from me, and I say "I have *little* money," that means I am not going to lend it to you. But when I say "Yes, I have *a little*," this means I am willing to lend you what little I have. *I have little time for you* means *I have not much time*, or even practically the same as *I have no time for you*. *He talks a little English* should be translated as 他会讲一点英文, but *He talks little English* means 他英文不大会讲. Study the following:—

You have *little* time left. You'd better hurry up.
I have *a little* time left. What can I do for you?
He knows *a little* French, but does not talk about it.
She knows *little*, but she talks a whole lot.
There is *little* use talking. He will never listen to you.
Oh, it has *a little* use. It will make him know that I do not approve.
I saw a *few* people there, and had a good talk with them.
I saw *few* people there, as most of them had gone away.

3.54. "No" in Negative Answers.—It is a peculiar English habit that, when the sentence itself is negative, we must use

no in the beginning, even when in Chinese *yes* would be the proper word to use. Whenever we use *not* in the sentence, we must also use *no*, and not *yes*. A sentence like *Yes, he will not come* is highly unidiomatic in English.

Q. Isn't he your brother?
A. (Yes, he is.) No, he is not.
Q. Haven't you got your book?
A. (Yes, I've got it.) No, I haven't.
Q. You are not going away tomorrow, are you?
A. No, I am not going. (Never say: *Yes*, I am not going.)
Q. And you don't mind missing this trip?
A. No, I don't mind. (Never say: *Yes*, I don't mind.)

3.55. Emphatic Negation.—There are various ways of making strong negatives by the use of certain phrases, by a retort question (as in emphatic affirmation), or sometimes by an obviously impossible statement. As a strong negative is often very useful, one should learn at least some of these phrases. Some of the commonest ones are seen in the following:—

Tsung-chang feels *not the least bit* sorry for his brother's death.
He is *not at all* sorry.
He is *by no means* sorry.
Far from it. (He is *far from being* sorry.)
Most certainly not.
Absolutely not.
He does *not* remember *at all* when or how the watch was lost.
I *cannot possibly* allow you to do that.
That watch has *no earthly* use for me.
He has*n't* got *a blessed* penny.
Not a single man remained.
He did*n't* understand *a single* word of it.
There is *none whatsoever.*

None of your impudence!
None of your nonsense!
He is *not a bit* ashamed.

Exercise 23. Make sentences with some of the above phrases

Sometimes an obviously untrue question is used for negation, as—

He a gentleman? (What nonsense that is!)
Am I my brother's keeper? (Is that my duty?)
Chang failed in mathematics? (Chang is the best student in mathematics.)
Chiang an honest man? (You know jolly well he isn't.)
Can the Dragon King be short of treasures? (He is famous for his treasures.)

Some apparently affirmative sentences have really a negative force, especially the common *I should worry,* meaning *What do I care? (That does not worry me). Catch me going to the church* also implies that you will never find me there. This is similar to the Chinese 你听他的话 (literally, *You listen to that fellow's words*), meaning *Don't believe what he says,* or 我怕他! (literally, *I afraid of him!*), meaning *I am not afraid.*

3.56. "I ain't got nothing."—In English vulgar speech, it is quite common to hear expressions like *I ain't got nothing, I don't never want no help from nobody, He can't do nothing without my help.* It would seem that the meaning from the combination of two negatives would be positive or affirmative, but actually this is only an English way of emphasizing the negative. *He can't do nothing* really means *He can do nothing.* In repeating these negatives, the speaker is only taking pains to make his negative meaning clear and unmistak-

able, for fear that one negative alone might not be heard.* This use of repeated negatives is not allowed in the speech of higher-class society.

On the other hand, the repetition of *not* in separate phrases is quite necessary to make the meaning clear. We say, for instance, *He wouldn't come to your house, not even the King himself should ask him to* / *He would never take opium, not even as a medicine* / *He would not take a bath, not even if you offer him all the chocolates in the world.* In the same way, we use *neither...nor* as being probably clearer than *either... or* in the following, although *either...or* would be also correct: *He cannot write a single decent Chinese essay, neither in pai-hua, nor in the literary language.*

3.57. Conditional Negation.—The repetition of *not* in negative clauses or phrases discussed in the preceding paragraph is quite often used in English. If a man asks you if you could write an English letter for him, and you do not mean to refuse him entirely, although you are too busy at the present moment, your answer should be "*Not now,* I am afraid" (cf. Pekingese 现在不). This may be called conditional negation or partial negation. Following are some more examples:—

(Question asked on a September morning:) Who will come and take a sea bath with me?——*Not I.* (=Others may go, but not I.)

Didn't he give the fellow some money also?——*Not he*! (=He is a miser.)

Are you going on the same boat with him?——*Not if* I can help

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* Otto Jespersen: *The Philosophy of Grammar*, p. 333.

it. (=I will not go on the same boat, if I can avoid it.)

Hasn't he published a book of poems?——*Not any* that I know of.

Will the foreigners never be friendly to China?——Some of them, yes, but *not all.* Or: *Not until* you show them a big navy.

Will Japan ever stop her aggressions on China?——No, no, *not until* we take measures of actual resistance.

Are you never going to take a little vacation?——*Not until* I finish this book of mine.

Let us start the bonfire now.——*Not so soon.* Wait till the guests have all come.

Exercise 24. Make sentences with some of the phrases: *not now, not I, not so soon, not if, not that, not until.*

The case of *All that glitters is not gold* is quite peculiar to English. It really means *Not all that glitters is gold.*

Interrogation

3.60. Interrogation.—In our study of English affirmative and negative sentences, we have learnt that the question is often used as a form of emphatic assertion or denial. It has also been shown (§ 3.50) that the forms *He came* and *Did he come?* require some special practice. Now there are five main types of questions: (1) by **simple inversion of word-order** between vb. and subject, (2) by addition of **helping vbb.**, (3) by the use of **interrogative pronn. or advv.** (*who, what, which, when, where, why* and *how*), (4) by the **tag-question,** and (5) by mere **questioning tone** without change of word-order or interrogative words.* In all except the last type, the verb-

*It would be foolish to force the students to remember these five types as so many convenient pills to swallow. Grammar becomes

before-subject word-order (or "inverted word-order") is used.

(1) *Knowest thou* that I am the King of Persia?
(2) *Do you know* that the president has resigned?
(3) *When* did he resign? *What* president?
(4) So he has resigned, *has he*?
(5) He has resigned? (With rising tone at the end.)

The first type, so much used in Old English is now replaced by the modern second type. With the helping vbb. *can, must*, etc., we simply use *can you? must I?* etc. (i.e., according to Type One).

3.61. Will You? Won't You?—It is natural that we expect a negative answer with an affirmative question and an affirmative answer with a negative question. This is especially true of the negative question and it applies to all languages. In Chinese,是不是 implies 是, and 岂有此理 implies决无此理. But the actual usage of these negative questions varies with different languages. Thus *won't you?* is much more commonly used in English than in Chinese. We say *Won't you sit down?* in English as an invitation to sit down, whereas the Chinese不坐一会吗? is practically a gentle suggestion for the man to leave. Thus, it is quite common to hear expressions like *Won't you have some cake? Won't you come with me? Won't you be so kind as to*, etc.? Of course *will you?* is the usual form used in these sentences.

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uninteresting the moment this spirit of learning formulas and dead enumerations enters. It is much more important that the students know how each form is used to express our ideas. No Englishman is ever conscious of these five types. Nor is the knowledge of these types of any use to him: the use consists in his ability to employ them to express his living meaning.

Exercise 25. Make sentences with the following:—

1. Won't you...?
2. Can't you see that...?
3. Don't you know that...?
4. Didn't he say that...?
5. Why don't you...?
6. Why did you...?
7. How could you...?
8. Aren't you ever...?
9. Didn't I tell you...?
10. Didn't you see...?
11. How is it that...?
12. Why isn't he...?
13. Couldn't you...?
14. Why hasn't she...?
15. Can't the letter...?
16. Didn't it...?

3.62. The Tag-Question.—The "tag-question" is found both in Chinese and English. *You are fifteen years old, aren't you?* is psychologically and grammatically the same as the Chinese ?你十五岁,是不是? This is really a question following a statement (affirmative or negative). Psychologically, it implies that I believe more or less already that you are fifteen years old, but that I am not quite sure about it. *He has arrived already, hasn't he?* implies that I know already he has arrived, only I am not positive about it; it is, therefore, quite different from *Has he arrived yet?* Sometimes this is used as a gentle command, as *Take this away, will you?* Sometimes it is used sarcastically, as *So you think you are going to get away with it, don't you?* (you need not think you will get away so easily); or *So you killed your husband quite innocently, didn't you?* (I don't believe in your innocence).

Two important points, however, must be observed. (1) the auxiliary or helping vb. used in the tag-question must be the same as the one used in the preceding statement. *He has arrived already, isn't it?* (for *hasn't he?*) in analogy to the Chinese 他来了, 是不是? would be quite wrong. (2) If the preceding statement is affirmative, the tag-question must be

in the negative, and *vice versa.*

Exercise 26. Put tag-questions to the following sentences:—

1. You are going to town this afternoon,...............?
2. They have told you about my coming,...............?
3. You wouldn't want to be late,...............?
4. You don't mind my seeing this letter,...............?
5. You will keep this secret,...............?
6. He can come by himself,...............?
7. She may decide for herself,...............?
8. You were together with him at college,...............?
9. He suggested this idea to you,...............?
10. You are not going to publish this,...............?

3.63. Tonal Interrogation and the Questioning Tone.— Another form of question usually expressing surprise is to keep the usual form of the affirmative or negative sentence, and give it a rising questioning tone at the end of the sentence. *The president has resigned?* (with rising tone) implies some surprise at the news. In other cases, it shows only an attentive or affectionate attitude. *Yes?* or *Well?* means go ahead and tell me what you are going to say. *Oh, papa, you are going to buy me a sailing boat? Really? Yes? No?* is a form of asking that is difficult to resist.

In English questions, the tone generally rises toward the end. *Are you there?* is pronounced *are* (low) *you* (highest) *there* (starting low and gradually rising). There are some exceptions, however. First, in questions with interrogative words, like *What is it all about?* the tone at the end drops as in other statements. Secondly, questions ending with an *or not* keep the rising tone until the last *or not,* when the tone drops: *Will you pay me or not?* Thirdly, statements followed

by a tag-question have the usual dropping tone of other statements, while the tag-question itself has the regular questioning tone.

I. What do you want (*drop*)?
II. Do you want anything (*rising*)?
III. You want something (*drop*), don't you (*rising*)?
IV. Do you want something (*rising*) or not (*drop*)?

3.64. The Indirect Question and Noun Clauses.—Very often we want not really to ask a question, but only to state a question, as *He asked me why I came late.* In such indirect questions, we do not invert the order between subject and vb.

Who *are you?* ....I know who *you are.*
Where *is he?* ....I don't know where *he is.*
Why *didn't he come?* ....The teacher asked why *he didn't come.*
What *did he say?* ....I didn't hear what *he said.*
What *shall I do?* ....The student asked *what he should do.*

In this way we get many noun clauses beginning with such interrogative words as *what, who, why, how, where, when.* We often also use the word *whether* or *if,* as in *He asked whether* (*if*) *he might join us* / *I wish to find out whether* (*if*) *he is still there.* These noun clauses are used like single words as far as their grammar is concerned, i.e., they are treated as one noun. E.g.—

He has done it. *How he did it* does not concern us.
Whether we are going to have a good or bad government depends on ourselves entirely.
How old she is is not for me to ask.

In *Find out what is the trouble* (*what the trouble is*), we may

consider the word-order as normal (not inverted) with *what* as subject and *is* as vb. (cf. *Find out who is there*). But a sentence like *Find out how is that to be done* (instead of *how that is*), or *How old is she is not for me to a k* is strictly not correct, although many English writers often make this mistake.

Rarely we find an indirect question put in the form of a direct question:—

> The servant opened the door and told me his master was out. He said the master had left word to say that he would be at the club from four to half past five this afternoon, and *would I* be willing to go and meet him there.

Exercise 27. Make sentences with the following phrases and noun clauses:—

1. Ask whether.
2. I don't know if.
3. I don't see how.
4. Go and see if.
5. Can't understand why.
6. He can't remember when.
7. Don't know why.
8. How or when he escaped.
9. Who has broken the window.
10. Who is in the room.
11. What that fellow's name is.
12. How long this meeting will be.
13. When the train is to arrive.
14. When the boat is leaving.
15. Whether this is true or not.
16. If the rain has stopped.
17. If dinner is ready.

The Potential Moods

3.70. Potential Moods.—There are a class of sentences which express a command, a wish, or a conjecture, and state what *may be* true rather than what *is* true, or what the speaker wishes to be done rather than what is done. These involve the use of such helping words as *may, can, must, will, shall, dare, need, ought,* etc. Some of these have already been studied in the preceding sections (Affirmation, Negation and Interrogation). It is also not meant that these potential sentences are not affirmative or negative sentences. But actually there is this class of sentences which must be studied. The distinction between what *is* true and what *may be* true is quite important, and the student should avoid stating as actual fact what is only a wish or a possibility. These sentences are called "potential" in this book, because they all express what may happen or what is possible. Sometimes a Chinese student says *I hope you come.* He makes this mistake because he has not learnt that the form *You come* expresses a real act, while what he hopes for is only *You will come,* i.e., a potential fact.

3.71. Command, Request, Suggestion, etc.—Sometimes we wish somebody to do something. This may not always be a command; it may be a humble request, a friendly advice, or a pious wish. Of course, the simplest form is the direct command, as *Go and fetch water!* This is always addressed to the hearer, and the word *you* is generally, although not always, omitted. We add the *you* especially when there are several persons receiving the order, as *You wash*

the floor, and you (pointing to another) *clean the window.* When the persons commanded are still more numerous or different, we generally use *shall, should, is to,* etc. Thus, *The third-year boys are to come in first and take the front rows, the second-year boys shall march in when the bell rings and the first-year boys will follow after them.* When the speaker himself is involved, the usual form is *let us* (*let's*), as *Let's have a game,* or more gently, *Let's have a game, shall we?*

Actually, however, we seldom use the direct command, and prefer to put it in a milder form, even when speaking to a servant. Thus it is difficult to draw a sharp distinction between a command, a request or a gentle suggestion. We may say to a servant *Will you bring me some cold water?* or *Will you look after the baby? Will you?* and *will you please?* are probably the commonest forms. But even *will you?* is already too much like a command, when we wish to ask a doctor to come to our house: we generally say *can you?,* or even better (because more indirect), *Could you come to my house now?*

As friendly advice, the commonest form is probably *you had better* (*go*). It is always more indirect and sounds less like a command when we use the subjunctive forms *should, might, could.* An extremely indirect way is to use *I should,* as *I shouldn't reply to him at all,* (*if I were you*).

Exercise 28. Learn to use the following phrases in sentences expressing a command, a request or an advice:—

1. will you?
2. will you please?
3. you+*vb.*
4. will some of you?

5. may I trouble you to?
6. would you care to?
7. can you?
8. could you?
9. you should
10. you ought to
11. the boy shall
12. you had (you'd) better (plus infinitive without *to*)
13. will you be so kind as to?
14. try to

3.72. "Shall" and "Will."—The use of *shall* and *will* may cause some difficulty to some students, although this is really quite simple. The whole difficulty lies only in these two facts:

(1) **I shall, We shall** are used for simple future.
(2) **He will, It will, You will** are used also for simple future (as well as for expressing a wish).

It will rain simply means *It is going to rain,* with no idea of wish, and *I shall be very busy* simply means *I am going to be very busy.* Otherwise *shall* always expresses a command, and *will* always expresses a wish. *Nobody will save me and I shall be drowned* is the thought of a man who falls into the water, whereas *Nobody shall save me; I will be drowned* is a thought properly belonging to one committing a suicide. We have, then, the following scheme:—

Simple Future		
I shall	**We shall**	*Command:* *Always use* **"shall."**
You will	**You will**	*Wish:*
He will	**They will**	*Always use* **"will."**

Chinese students should learn to see *I shall, we shall, shall I?* more often. E.g.—

I shall be too tired to write this evening.
I am afraid *I shall* be late.

We shall not be back for supper.
Shall I show you how it is done?
Shall I bring you a hot water bag?
Shall we go and ask him?

A question with *will I?* will be meaningless, for we seldom need to ask ourselves if we are willing.

However, as a form of command, *you will* is sometimes even stronger than *you shall,* as *You will pack out at once* (=给我滚蛋). Here *you will* implies I know *you are going to* (do as I say), and that I will not be disobeyed. Also, Englishmen often use *I'll* instead of *I shall* in many places because of economy of expression, as *I'll* (really *I shall*) *not be able to go.*

Exercise 29. Put *will* and *shall* in the following sentences instead of *going to, want to, wish to,* etc.

1. I am going to tell you everything.
2. I do not want to be disobeyed.
3. It is going to be Thursday tomorrow.
4. We are going to stay until midnight.
5. They are going to stay till morning.
6. Are we going to have plenty to eat?
7. Am I going to have my pay this seek-end?
8. I told him not to go, but he wants to go.

3.73. Hope and Wish.—In English, there is a slight distinction between hope and wish. Generally, we hope for what *may* or *will* happen, but wish for something which is quite untrue, but which *might* or *could* be true. Thus *hope* is usually followed by *will, may, can,* while *wish* is followed by *were, could, would* or by a vb. in the subjunctive past.

I hope you *will* come.

I hope you *will* be satisfied.
I hope they *can* agree with us.
I wish I *were* dead (but I am alive).
I wish I *could* help you (but I can't).
I wish you *would* not talk like that.
Do you know who sent the letter?——I wish I *knew* (i.e., I don't know.)
I wish you *could* see him fighting against the whole bunch of them.
I hope it *isn't* true.
I wish it *were* true (but it is not).

Of course in *I wish to* and *I hope to,* both words are followed by the infinitive.

The English way of thinking makes a sharp distinction between what is a fact and what is a mere wish or desire. In case of a wish, we always use the vb. in the infinitive, even when a past form or an added *-s* is usually required. Thus, we have *He commanded that the witness tell* (not *told*) *everything he knew before the court,* and *Our wish was that he leave* (not *left*) *this city at once.* So also we have *God save the king!* (not *saves*), and *Long live the Republic!* (not *lives*). Another common English way of expressing a wish is to use *may* in such sentences as *May God bless you!* and *May you live to repent this!* A wish for what has not happened is often expressed by an exclamation with *if: If I only had more money! / If I could only see her face once more! / If I only knew!*

Exercise 30. Make some sentences with the following phrases:—

1. I hope you will (can)......
2. I wish you would......
3. I wish I could......
4. I wish I had......
5. The master wished to......
6. Let us hope that......

7. The mother hopes to...... 9. If I could......
8. If my father would...... 10. If I only had......

3.74. Permission, Prohibition, Obligation, etc.—The English expression of allowing (permission) and not allowing (prohibition) is rather simple and similar to Chinese. Both *may* and *can* are used to express permission and prohibition, but where the idea of *allowed to, not allowed to* is strictly meant, we should use *may* and not *can.*

May (*Can*) I go out, sir?
May (*Can*) I go now?
You *may* (*can*) go.
You *may not* (=are not allowed to) tell it to others.
Passengers *may not* (=are not allowed to) smoke in their cabins.
Students *may* (=are allowed to) pay their tuitions in instalments.

Various ideas of obligation are expressed by *must, have to, should, is to, is supposed to, is expected to* and *ought to. Ought* (from "owe") expresses more the idea of duty, but it also often expresses a theoretical assumption(论理该当如是) or a conjecture. Following are some examples of the usage of the various words:—

You *must* (not) tell him.
Must you go now? Do you *have to go?*
Must you tell him everything? (It is unnecessary and foolish to do so.)

You *should* be more careful.
You *ought to* tell him (which you don't).
Mr. Ellis *ought to* know (he is an expert).
I thought that *ought to* be all right (but it turned out to be otherwise).

You *ought to* be ashamed of yourself (but you are not).
You *are* not *supposed to* talk in class.
He *is to* (=*is expected to*) arrive tomorrow.
You *are expected to* hand in your compositions.
You *are to* go and fetch him.
He *is supposed to* be here already (but he is late).
You *are* not *supposed to* know (but I tell you secretly).

It is an interesting thing that the idea of obligation is now more commonly expressed by the phrases *is to* (*am to,* etc.) and *has to* (*have to,* etc.), especially in the past and future tenses. We do not say *He must go yesterday,* but *He had to go,* and we never say *He will must go,* but *He will have to go. Is to* means *is expected to* or *is supposed to,* and often refers to something to be done in the future. We have then the forms:—

Past.	He *had to* pay.	We *were to* meet that day.
Pres.	He *has to* (=*must*) pay.	We *are to* meet often.
Fut.	He *will have to* pay.	We *are to* meet this afternoon.

The Prince was to visit the Capital on the 12*th* means that at that time the Prince had not yet visited the city, but it had been arranged for him to do so on the 12th.

Exercise 31. Make a few sentences using *had to, has to, will have to, are supposed to, is expected to, ought to, was to, were to, is to.* Make some sentence with *must* and change it into the past or future tense, and see how you will have to change the expression.

3.75. Conjecture and Possibility.—*May, can* and *must* are also used in a different sense, that of conjecture. Suppose something has been lost, we may hear the following conjectures about the thief:—

Who *can* it be?
It *cannot* be Mr. Y——, for he was not in the room.
Can it be the cook?
It *may* be the cook's nephew who was here alone.
It *may* be he, or it *may* be a burglar.
No, it *cannot* be the cook or his nephew, and there were no burglars here. It *must* be the policeman.

Thus we have the three forms, *can it be?* (with *it cannot be*), *it may be* and *it must be*. Compare in this connexion the use of *huei* (=*can*) in Chinese in会不会是他？ and *i-ting* (=*must*) in 一定是巡警. *Must* is very often used in this sense. E. g.—

You *must* be very hungry now.
He *must* be dying now.
That *must* be the real reason why he came here.
If C—— is your father's class-mate, he *must* be well over forty now.
I will go and take his place. He *must* be getting tired now.
I think they *must* be brother and sister, for they look very much alike.
We didn't wait for you long. I knew something *must* have kept you.

The expressions "possibility" and "probability" are quite new to the Chinese language, as we can see from the new expression "～之可能," ("probability" remains untranslatable yet). It is important, however, that the student of English learn early to use such expressions.

Exercise 32. (I) Make sentences with the following phrases:—

It may or it may not be ....
You may or may not ....
It is possible that ....
It is probable that ....

Probably. Possibly.
The people are likely to ....

(II) Dicuss the possible reason why some one is absent from class, using the phrases *Can it be that? It may be that, It must be because.*

(III) Use *must* in some sentence in the sense of a conjecture.

3.76. Pure Suppostion: Would, Should, Could, Might.— The words *would, should, could, might* are supposed to be the past forms of *will, shall, can* and *may.* But in reality they express an entirely different class of notions. If you put your finger in the fire, what *would* happen? Your finger *would* get burnt, *wouldn't it?* This is true at any time. We may, therefore, call such a statement a **general supposition.**

Whenever we think of a thing as a general or **purc supposition,** we use *might, should, could* and *would. He can do it* means definitely that he can (a fact), but *He could do it* means *I suppose* that he can do it, although he has not done it. China is not strong, but China *could* be strong, if, etc. You have not burnt down the whole house this time, but you *might* have, so next time be more careful. All these express pure suppositions and not facts. A supposition could, of course, be true. If I say "Mr. P—— may be sick," I am stating it as a possible fact. But if I say "Mr. P—— *might* be sick, for I haven't seen him for the last few days," I am stating a pure supposition of mine. The difference between *may* and *might,* therefore, chiefly depends, not on the facts of the situation, but on the intention of the speaker.

This distinction between fact and fancy (see fuller treatment in Chapter XIV) is very important to learn, because there is nothing like it in Chinese grammar. Many Chinese

students fail to learn the use of such highly idiomatic expressions as *I should think, I should like, would you? could you?* because they do not know the idea of general supposition or pure supposition. And yet the proper use of *I should like, could you?* etc. is one of the first conditions of speaking good English. Simple people like to make blunt statements of facts, whereas more educated people are never too sure about what they do not quite know. It is often more refined to say "It *would be* all right" than to say "It *is* all right." *Could you come to my house?* is also more polite and gentle than *Can you,* etc? because it seems to say *Could you come, if I should ask you?* as a matter of supposition. It is less direct than asking *Can you come or can you not?* as a question of fact.

What *will* you do now? (What are you going to do?)——A question of fact.

What *would* you do (if you were in my place)?——A supposition.

Can you do it? (Are you able to do it?)——A fact.

Could you do it (if I should ask you)?——A supposition.

Suppose you put water over the fire, what *would* happen? *Would* the fire get wet?

Suppose you put oil into the fire, what *would* happen? You *might* burn down the whole house, *might* you not?

Look out! you may fall down. Answer: But I don't (fall down). Reply: But you *might.*

I should like to see you try. (I suppose I like.)

I should think he feels rather ashamed of it.

Would you have tea or coffee? What *would* you rather have, tea or coffee? (Gentle question.)

Why don't you do it? Answer: I suppose I *could* do it, but I don't want to.

Will you help him? He is short of money. Answer: I *would* if I *could* (but the fact is, I can't).

You *should* help him if you *could*. And I believe you *could* if you *would*. (You *will* not, that's why you say you *can't*).

3.77. The Subjunctive Clause.—We often use the word *if* to express a condition, as *if it rains, if he comes,* etc. Just as there is a difference between *can you come?* and *could you come?,* so there is a difference between *if he comes* and *if he should come.*

Tell him to wait *if he comes*. (It is quite possible that he will come.)

Tell him I am not at home, *if he should come*. (He seldom comes, and I don't wish to see him).

If he is there, tell him to come at once. (He may be there.)

If he should be there again, bring him to me. (He has been there once, and I have told him not to go there again, but if he should do so, bring him to me.)

If I am elected, send me a telegram.

If I were (should be) *you,* I would resign at once.

So much, then, depends on what the speaker means, whether he considers it as a possible fact or as a pure supposition. The forms *if...is, if...comes,* etc, are thus used for more likely suppositions, while the form *if...should* is used for more theoretical suppositions. There are, besides, the forms *if he come* (not *comes*), *if you be* (not *are*) in which the verbs are said to be in the subjunctive mood; their meaning is the same as *if he should come, if you should be.* And then, when a supposition is known to be untrue, we even use the past form of the verb, as *if I knew, if I were* (i.e., I don't know and I am not). We have, then, the following:—

1. If he comes. If I am.

2.	If he come.	If I be.
3.	If he should come.	If I should be.
4.	Should he come.	Should I be.
5.	If he came.	If I were.

The forms "2" to "4" are really identical in meaning. For a more detailed study of the changes in vbb. (*if he had come*, etc.), see Chapters XIII and XIV.

It is peculiar to English that we could use the *if*-clause at the end of a sentence. Up till a few years ago when we started this "Europeanized Chinese" (欧化语体) business, we could not do so in a Chinese sentence. Now we can say, for instance, 此人野心很大，倘是我的推料不错 ("This man has great personal ambition, if I am not mistaken in my judgment"). This comes with the colloquial style. The *if*-clause comes as an after-thought; it is more easy and familiar and more like our thinking, because we often do not think of the *if*-clause until the end of the statement.

Exercise 33. *Should* is very often used ofter *if*. Make a number of sentences with the *if...should* construction. Generally, if this is used, we also use *would* in the other part of the sentence.

Emotional Utterances

3.80. Emotional Utterances.—All words have an emotional power, and the power varies with the speaker, the person spoken to, the situation and tone in which it is spoken, etc. *Oh*, *Johnny!* from a loving wife after a six months' absence may say a thousand things beyond the power of the most finished public speaker, and at times, it may reform a drunkard where a Salvation Army man has failed with his

volumes of eloquence. Emotional utterances, therefore, have a value which has nothing to do with the length of the sentence or its grammatical perfection. They are usually short, to the point, and present many grammatical peculiarities.

In the hour of excitement, we generally say the few words that are uppermost in our minds. *Oh!/Ah!/Amen!/ Well!/What?* are such common expressions. The soldier in the trench seeing the coming of the deadly poison gas and wishing to give his fellow-soldiers warning, can only shout *Gas! Gas!* Other exclamations with one noun are:*An iceberg!/ A whale!/A shark!/Hot cross buns!/The police!/The proctor!/A great idea!/My pistol!* Exclamations of verbs without subjects are: *Forward march!/Halt!/Shoot!/Raining!* and of subjects with the verb omitted are: *Well, I never!* (heard of or saw such a thing)/*He dead?* Still others may express an adj. or an adv. alone, as *How silly!/Excellent!/Fine!/Gorgeous!/ Marvellous!/ Now!/Never again!* Others may express a situation or a short phrase, as *A man in the water!/The pity of it!/One a penny!* Some exclamations may by mere sounds, like *Tut!/Pshaw!/La, la!/ Hurrah!/Whoop!/Z—z—z—z—z,* etc.

Some special grammatical forms used in exclamations may be noticed here: those beginning with *that, to, if,* and those with interrogative words (without change of subject—verb word-order):—

(1) *That* you, too, should turn against me!
Oh, God! *that* bread should be so dear!
And flesh and blood so cheap!
(2) *To think* that I shall never see you again!
To think you could be so ungrateful!
(3) *If* the rain would only stop!

If I could go to see him now!

(4) *How* beautiful! *How* beautiful that is!
What fun! *What* happiness!
What a sight! *What* a poet!
What to do? *What* to say?

3.81. Swear-Words.—English people swear as much as Chinese do, although they swear differently. Swear-words often express meanings which cannot be as forcefully conveyed by other means. An English Major-General swearing at his soldiers with "You pack of consumptive little Maltese monkeys!" generally gets himself obeyed. To call a man "a dirty dog" or a woman "a cat" (spiteful woman) may save us the trouble of using mang long adjectives. The important thing to observe is to swear at the right person and in the right atmosphere.

Swearing could be very vulgar, although, in Chinese, vulgar swearing is indulged in by our perfectly respectable uncles and aunts. An English student, however, should learn at least some effective and comparatively respectable forms of swearing. Some convenient and not too mild swear-words are: *Bother! Botheration! Dash it! The cursed ——! You blasted fool! I'm blowed (dammed) if I know! That blessed son of yours! By (St.) George!* and *By Jove!* (Jupiter) are quie inoffensive to Christian ears, as also *Ye gods!* and *Great Heavens!* Ladies may use milder forms like *Dear me! Oh dear! Oh my! My good-ness!* or *Good gracious!* The word *damned* (*a damned thing, damn it!*) with its slang form *darned* should generally be avoided before the ladies, although it may be quite the thing in certain classes of society, and although St. Paul used it frequently in the Bible. In very familiar circles, sometimes a little liberty with the popular *damned* may be allowed. As

a substitute for *damn,* we may use *dash,* and as a substitute for *bloody* (*bloody nuisance, all bloody fine, bloody quick*) we may use *blessed* (*not a blessed cent,* but *awful nuisance, awfully good*).

The taboo on swear-words varies from time to time and according to people's changing beliefs. Now that people's fear of hell-fire is disappearing, it is quite all right to use "To the hell with ——!" because it no longer hurts. Swearing by God is generally not allowed, although the longest example of this form of swearing is to be found in the Roman Catholic official curse or anathema used in excommunicating people from the church.

CHAPTER IV

PERSONS, THINGS AND THEIR GENDER

4.10. Classes of Things.—In this chapter, we shall study the English notions regarding the classes of things that are expressed by the nouns. We have seen already (§ 2.15) that the English nouns may denote visible things (*tables, chairs*), invisible things (*air, noise, possibility, power*), or half visible and half invisible things (*government, applause, happiness, middle, end*). They may denote a concrete thing (*table, chair*), an action or event (*promotion examination,* the *fall* of a government), or a condition (*poverty, danger, prosperity*) or a quality (*kindness, stupidity, thinness*). All these are regarded as nouns from the English grammatical point of view. To these we must add also the noun clauses, such as *That he is dead (is certain), How much he took (nobody knows).* They thus include more than the Chinese notion of 事物 (or "things and events"), for 事物cannot include the abstract qualities (品性, as *kindness, thinness*).

These nouns have been classified in different ways by different grammarians, chiefly according to their meaning, such as "common nn.," "proper nn.," "material nn." We shall soon see that such hard and fast distinctions are by no means easy to establish or strictly logical. Still, without trying to put all the nn. into any one system of classification, we can, and Englishmen do, consider the nn. as belonging to different classes expressing different notions. The following distinctions must be made clear in the student's mind.

(1) Process and Result ......*heating*: *heat.*
(2) Abstract and Concrete...*food*: *food-stuffs* / *money*: *coins.*
(3) Common and Proper......*people*: *Chinese.*
(4) Collectives .... *army, clergy, class.*
(5) Mass-Words .... *paper, water, milk.*
(6) Persons and Things ......*writer*: *inkstand.*

Each of these notional distinctions must be studied by the Chinese student, if he wants to use his nn. correctly.

Process and Result

4.20. Process and Result.—In a phrase like *the building of a building*, or *the painting of a painting*, the first word *building* or *painting* denotes a process, while the second denotes the result of that process. The one implies a sense of action or motion, the other implies no such sense of motion. Compare the Chinese他所画的画and佩带 (=君子所佩, "what a gentleman carries," i.e., jade, girdle, sword, etc.). There are many such distinctions in the English vocabulary, and one should make sure whether the noun denotes a process or action, or whether it denotes merely a thing, condition or quality (which may or may not be the result of the process). Compare the following:—

ACTION	NOT ACTION (things, qualities and conditions)
wedding day	his *marriage* (result)
heating	*heat*
allowing	*allowance* (=money allowed)
immunization	*immunity* from disease
differentiation, distinction	*difference*
presentation	*present* (=thing presented)

identification	........................*identity* of a person
impregnation	........................*pregnancy* (a condition)
conception, conceiving	...........*concept* (=idea)
deception	.............................*deceit*
toleration	.............................*tolerance*
recording	.............................*record* (=what is recorded)
investigation	..........................*findings* (results of investigation)

4.21. Process-Words Denoting Results.—It is very natural, however, that the word denoting a process is often used to denote the result of that process. From the *improvement* (improving) of the country, it is natural to transfer the meaning to the improvement actually made, as *I noticed many improvements* (things added, etc.). And from *the destination* (destining) of a boat's voyage, it is natural to shift the meaning to the port to which the boat sails or is destined, as *The destination is Amoy.* Because the skin of roast duck or roast pig crackles in the mouth, we now call such skin *crackling,* and because the lining of a long gown is used for lining the inside, we call it *lining.* Further examples are:—

PROCESS-WDS.	RESULTS DENOTED	EXAMPLES
washing	things to be washed	(*this week's wasking*)
gathering	...........crowd gathered	(*a large gathering*)
following	...........group of followers	(*a large following*)
division	..............an army unit	(*the division commander*) [师长]
distinction	...........fame and honour	(*a man of distinction*)
description	.........type, kind	(*people of every description*)
information	........informed news	(*information leaked out*)

This change of meaning is very common and offers no grammatical difficulties to the student. But th estudent should observe the difference. When the *heating of a* house is bad, we should not say *The heat is bad,* nor should

we condemn the *song* because the *singing* is atrocious.

Exercise 34. Find out whether action or no action is directly meant in the italicized words:—

1. During Wilson's second *administration*, America entered the World War.
2. You lack *imagination* (=imaginative power).
3. A lady's *accomplishments* are: tinkling the piano and speaking a few French phrases, etc.
4. Supply is influenced by *consumption* (=consuming).
5. He is a victim of *consumption* (=tuberculosis).
6. *Fertilization—fertility.* *Communication—community.* *Imprisonment—prison.* *Education—knowledge.*

Abstract and Concrete Nouns

4.30. Abstract and Concrete Nouns.—Abstract nn. are those representing abstract ideas. Thus the Chinese conceptions of "good fortune," "official position,' and "longevity" (福, 禄, 寿) are abstract ideas (抽象的), while "having a hunderd children and a thousand grandchildren," "being prime ministers at court and generals in the field" and "living to seventy years of age (百子千孙, 出将入相, 年逾古稀) are the corresponding concrete ideas (具体的). We may change the concrete idea and still retain the abstract notion; thus people nowadays no longer identify "having a hundred children and a thousand grandchildren" with "good fortune"; they will most likely consider having to educate seven sons and seven daughters with fifty dollars a month a curse and a form of divine punishment.

The Chinese language is highly concrete in its notions and imagery, and many Chinese students therefore fail to

learn the abstract notions of English nouns. Compared with the Chinese, English abounds in abstract words. Thus, we have *nien-ling* (年龄, *year-year*) for "age," but the abstract idea of "size" is expressed by the more concrete words *ta-hsiao* (小大, *big-small*). The ending *hsing* (性) for abstract nn., as in *shen-so-hsing* (伸缩性, *extend-shrink-character,* "elasticity"), *k'o-fen-hsing* (可分性, *may-divide-character* "divisibility"), is a modern innovation of very recent date, due to western influence. Thus many Chinese students can never learn to say, "The essay is perfect *in form and content*" (abstract form and content), but must always say "*Its form and contents* are perfect" (concrete form and contents). This is often as difficult for the Chinese students to grasp as it is well-nigh impossible for most people to distinguish between the *church* (concrete) and *religion* (abstract). They would never think it possible for Jesus to stand *outside* the church window, calling to the young worshippers inside, "Suffer the little children to come unto me."

In the following, we use italics to indicate abstract ideas and bold face to indicate concrete ones.

A rosy **cheek** is the **sign** of good *health.*
Eating three bowls is surely good *appetite.*
This young man is full of ideas, but he lacks *experience.* I had once a very funny **experience** with him. We went together to see his uncle and get some money from him, and when we arrived, he told his uncle to go to the devil.
China is backward in *communication.* She should have more **roads, railways and aeroplanes.**
You have too many **churches,** but no *religion.*
You cannot have *justice,* when there are too many clever **lawyers.**

Our **politicians** have no *statesmanship*, and our **diplomats** do not understand *diplomacy*, They may be busy the whole day attending **luncheons, dinners,** and making high-sounding, silly **speeches,** but **luncheons** and **dinners** are not *statesmanship*, and fine **speeches** are not *diplomacy*.

Maurice Maeterlinck is against *war* in principle (in the abstract), but he fought in the **war against Germany,** when the latter invaded Belgium.

You do not love *me* (the invisible *self*), you love only my **money.**

4.31. Abstract-Words with Concrete Meaning.—In English, the same word has often two meanings, one concrete and the other abstract. Study the following:—

ABSTRACT	CONCRETE
She has both *youth* and *beauty*.	Our *youths* (=young men) are corrupt.
That's the *beauty* of the poem.	Isn't she a *beauty* (=beautiful woman)?
Life is short.	Many *lives* have been lost.
We love the teacher for her *kindness*.	Thank him for his *kindnesses* (acts of kindness).
That man has no *brains* (=He is stupid).	He has a big *brain* (=He has a big head).
She is proud of her *looks*.	She gave him a *look*.
He is keen in *observation*.	He makes this *observation*.
With an *air* of satisfaction.	The fresh country *air*.

As abstract nn. can seldom be counted, we may often notice by the use of singular that an abstract, rather than a concrete, idea is meant. Thus, we sometimes say, "Dr.

Lin has many *systems,* but no *system,*" the second word referring to an abstract systematic habit of doing things. Similarly, we have the following plurals, which show that they are here used to express concrete ideas:—

Impurities in the water ....impure substances.
The *pleasures* of an old man ....forms of pleasure.
Accused of *cruelties* to his wife ......cruel acts.
Several *possibilities* exist ......possible ways.
Youthful *follies* ....foolish acts, habits.
Communication *facilities* ....railways, trains, boats.

4.32. A Piece of Folly, a Fit of Anger, etc.—Not all abstract nn., however, can be used to denote concrete things. Whenever in doubt, one can always use another way to express the corresponding concrete idea. We cannot talk of *three furnitures,* but we can always say *three pieces of furniture,* and we cannot speak of *two infections,* but we can say *two cases of infection.* It would seem strange to Chinese minds that we could speak of *a piece of good luck* (一块福气), but the Englishman does often use this to express *a lucky event or accident.* The use of *piece, bit, case, form, act,* etc. plus some abstract n. should be studied carefully:—

A *piece* of good luck, learned nonsense, folly.
Some *bits* of scandal, information, news.
A fit of fever, hysteria, anger.
A sudden *attack* of madness, fever.
Several *cases* of theft, malaria, typhoid, criminal neglect.
This strange *form* of pleasure, punishment, corruption.
His *acts* of kindness, cruelty, generosity.

A *stroke* of good fortune.
An *instance* (*example*) of his selfishness, pride, carelessness.

Exercise 35. Use the words *case, example, act,, form, instance, piece,* etc. plus some abstract noun in some sentences.

Common and Proper Nouns

4.40. Common and Proper Nouns.—The most common classification of nn. is the division into common nn. and proper nn. Examples of proper nn. are *Ningpo, Mencius, Chinese, Arnold Bennett,* and examples of common nn. are *book, table, story, city.* According to some grammars, a proper n. is defined as the name of one particular person or thing, and a common n. is defined as that of a whole class of persons or things. Any table may be called a table and any city may be called a city, whereas only one city is called Ningpo and only one man was called Mencius. This distinction is practically useful, but we should know that it is really impossible to draw a sharp line between the two. May not any negro be called a negro? Is the word *negro* a common or proper noun? Certainly the word *Chinese* can be applied to a whole class of persons, and certainly there are many *Lins* in China. And yet *Chinese* and *Lin* are considered proper nn. And if *Chinese* is considered a proper name, why is the *yellow race* considered a common noun? Are the *moon,* the *sun* and the *earth* common nouns or proper nouns? And if *summer* and *winter* (spelt with small letters) are considered common nn., because there are many summers and many winters, why are *January, February* and *Monday, Tuesday* written with capital letters at the beginning like proper nn.?

The distinction between common and proper nn. is only a relative one. The proper n. is felt to be more exact, more specific and more artificial, while the common n. is felt to be less exact, less specific and less artificial. (It should be remembered that all names are artificial.) The cigarette I smoke is called *Craven "A"*; there is no reason why it may not be called *Creighton "X."* The name is, therefore, quite artificial. The phrase *China sea* may be a common name, but when we decide to call the sea on the east of China the *China Sea* (with capital letters), we give it both a more exact name and a more exact meaning. When I call this book the *Kaiming English Grammar*, I am giving a comparatively exact, specific and artificial name to the book.

4.41. Proper Nouns and Capital Letters.—Proper nn. must begin with capital letters in writing. We may write *the kings of Europe* or *a college dean*, but when we refer to *the King of England* or *the Dean* as a proper name, we begin it with a capital letter. When it is uncertain whether it is a common or proper name, usage also differs. We use capitals when we regard a name as a proper name, otherwise we use small letters. Thus we write *North China*, but *northern China* or *Northern China*, *the far East* or *the Far East*, *western Europe* or *Western Europe*, *the orient* or *the Orient*, *Chinese classics* or *the Chinese Classics*. Many words which were originally proper names have now become common names and are written with small letters, as *china* (porcelain), *champagne* (wine), *italics* (type), *boycott** (movement), *cynic* (man). Adjj. and vbb. made from proper names are generally

*From Captain Boycott who was boycotted by the Irish peasants.

also written with capital letters: *Chinese, European, Anglicize, Romanize* (also *romanize*).

Collectives and Mass-Words

4.50. Collectives or Group-Names.—There are a class of nn. which denote a group of things or persons taken together, and which may be called collectives or collective nn. Collective nn. may be considered as singular (one group) or as plural (many individuals). Thus, we may say *the Government have* or *has... / There is* or *are a flock of sheep / The whole staff resign* or *resigns.* For some collectives we have no proper Chinese equivalent, as *the crew* of a ship (船中机师水手之总称), *the faculty* of a departmet (一系之全体教员),*the staff* of a company (全体职员). We also speak of a *person's hair* (meaning all the pieces of his hair) and *the shot* (meaning all the little lead balls discharged at one shot of the gun). Other examples are: *people, nation, troop, army, clergy, family, clan, society, library, cattle, sheep, fish.* For the grammatical number of these words, see § 5.22.

4.51. Mass-Words.*—The words *air, copper, wood, alcohol, milk,* etc. form a class by themselves. They can never

*The term "mass-word" was first proposed by Jespersen, and is a convenient distinction from the collective with which it has usually been confused. According to Jespersen, the essential difference is that collectives are both singular and plural, while masswords are neither singular nor plural. The Jespersenian classification seems to be made with reference to number. In this book, however, I do not use this term to include abstract nouns ("immaterial mass-words") such as *health* and *happiness,* because *health* and *happiness* have no "mass" to speak of, and because number is not the sole basis of classification here

be counted, for they are neither singular nor plural. Among the concrete nn., these words are most like the abstract nn. (*politeness, wealth*) in not having number and in often being used without any article, *a* or *the*. Thus we say simply *Milk is heathy food* or *You should take milk* and not *a milk*, just as we say *Health is happiness* or *That gives me happiness* and not *a happiness*. Of course we can use *the* before mass-words when we mean something definite, as *the air, the milk*, just as wt sepeak of *the health* or *the happiness of the family*. For the "number" of these words, see § 5.11.

Things, Persons and Personification

4.60. Things and Persons.—A very important distinction in English grammar is that between persons and things. One would think that the distinction between animate and inanimate things (thus putting the animals in the same class with persons) would be more logical, but, apparently, in English, we have chosen to regard man as the all-important thing in the universe and have put him in a class by himself. Things, whether animate or inanimate, may then occasionally be honoured with a "personification" and thus by a figure of speech be put on a level with human beings.

The clearest and commonest examples of this distinction between personal and impersonal objects are the pronn. *he, she, him, her* for persons and *it, its* for animals and things. Much depends also on personal interest. A child we do not know much about or are little interested in is referred to as *it*, but the child's own mother seldom does so. In the same way, the master who lives in close relation with his cat or dog generally refers to the cat or dog with *he* or *she*, and

not with *it*. Further examples are:—

For persons:	*who, somebody, anybody, everybody, nobody, some one, any one, every one, no one* (or spelt as *someone, anyone, everyone, no-one*).
For things:	*what* (pron.), *which* (pron), *something, anything, everything, nothing.*

Some words may be used for both persons and things. E.g., the pronn. *all, each, one, none* and the adjj. *what, which.*

PERSONS	ANIMALS & THINGS
All are dead.	*All* is lost.
I know *all* of them.	I know *all* (=everything).
Each goes his own way.	*Each* has a tail.
The clever *ones* keep silent.	The bird eats all the good *ones* (apples).
None of them was there.	There is *none* left.
What a singer!	*What* nonsense!
Which person do you mean?	*Which* story is most interesting?

4.61. "Who," "Which" and "That."—The relative pronn. are used differently. *Who* (with *whom*) is used only for persons, *which* is used only for things, and *that* is used for both. *That* is, therefore, always safe to use, as one cannot make a mistake with it.

Exercise 36. (I) Make some sentences with:—

1. all who	7. the house which
2. those who	8. the book which
3. people who	9. the things that (which)
4. every one who	10. the horse that (which)
5. any one who	11. the men that (who)
6. anything which	12. the boys that (who)

(II) Substitute *who* (*whom*) and *which* in the following sen-

tences for *that*:—

1. The man *that* says this is a liar.
2. Those *that* are afraid need not come.
3. I like fried fish *that* looks brown and crisp.
4. I like a girl *that* dresses neatly.
5. A wife may fail you, but a good cigarette (is one *that*) never fails.
6. Your friends may fail you, but a good wife (is one *that*) never fails.
7. The man *that* fishes is called a fisherman.
8. The line and hook *that* the fisherman uses is called a fishingline.
9. A rubber is the thing *that* is used to rub off pencil marks. It means sometimes a person *that* does the rubbing.
10. A robber is one *that* robs, and a thief is one *that* steals.
11. The person *that* you see sitting next to Mr. Y—— is my cousin.

4.62. "Whose" and "Of Which."—Like *who* and *which*, *whose* is generally used for persons and *of which* for things. Some writers would never allow *whose* to be used for other objects than persons. But this restriction is neither a help to clearness or convenience, nor historically correct.* The use of *of which* often requires a very troublesome, unclear and unpleasant construction, as *This is a place the people, customs and geographical position of which I know nothing aboyt.* Certainly it is clearer and easier to say *This is a country whose people, customs and geographical position I know nothing about.* The first form is grammatically correct, but stylistically somewhat objectionable. We should say, therefore, that at least both forms may be used.

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*See *Modern English Usage*, pp. 727–728.

Exercise 37. Substitute *whose* for *of which, of whom* in the following sentences:—

1. The detective picked up a small, square box, the cover *of which* was made of fine wrought-silver, and the inside *of which* bore the initials "B. W. H."
2. I was introduced to a man the name *of whom* was familiar to me.
3. The cripple was made the referee of the games the rules *of which* he was entirely ignorant of.
4. We then entered the old castle the walls *of which* were moss-grown and covered with ivy.
5. I received a letter the handwriting *of which* looked like that of my dead brother.
6. I got a book the corner of the cover *of which* was slightly damaged.

4.63. Personification.—Personification, or considering an animal or a thing as a person, is of various kinds and is more common than we suspect. (*a*) When Laotse says "Heaven-and-earth is unkind: it (he?) treats the creation like dummy-dogs. The sage is unkind: he treats the people like dummy-dogs" (i.e., dummies made of hay used for the sacrifices) (天地不仁，以万物为刍狗.圣人不仁，以百姓为刍狗), he is there personifying heaven-and-earth, regarding it as capable of being kind or unkind, like the sage himself. The English people, too, often personify Nature, Heaven, Fate, the Furies, Fortune, Justice, Liberty, etc. Some of these examples go back to Greek tradition, and the English people often actually have the image of a goddess in their minds, when they speak of Justice or Liberty. That it should be a goddess rather than a god may seem strange to Chinese minds.*

*Compare, however, Laotse, 有名万物之母 "The Named is the *mother* (and not *father*) of all things."

Some older authors, too, are fond of writing Knowledge, Hope, Despair, Humanity, Courage, Patience with capital letters, but this has become out-of-fashion in modern times.

More common and more useful are the following forms of personification. (*b*) The use of *she* and *her* in speaking of a nation or a ship. (*c*) The use of personal vbb. like *know, regret, remember, agree* with words like *the world, the people, posterity, China's womanhood* as singular subjects. (*d*) The use of the personal possessive form (with *'s*) in connexion with non-personal objects, as *the clock's hands, the river's mouth* instead of *the hands of the clock, the mouth of the river* or *the river mouth,* and *the cloud's colour* instead of *the colour of the cloud.* This last form should generally be avoided, except in special phrases, as *'China's sorrow"* (the Yellow River), *out of harm's way, for convenience' sake* (cf. *for my sake*), *the day's work, a good night's sleep, at a minute's* (or *moment's*) *notice.* The last examples are really convenient phrases made for economy of expression, like the *whose* discussed above, and have little suggestion of personification.

(*a*) 1. As *Fate* would have it, he came home that evening to meet his death.

2. *Fortune* smiled on him, and he became the most popular novelist of the day.

(*b*) 3. France was asking America to cancel *her* war debts.

4. *She* (the ship) was going at 12 knots an hour.

(*c*) 5. The world shall long *remember* what the people lived through during the Great War.

6. China's womanhood *is taking* the matter very much in *her* own hands.

(*d*) 7. Mr. H—— was lying at *death's* door.

8. Let us say, for *argument's* sake, that he was cheated by others.

Exercise 38. Make some sentences with the following phrases:—

1. For convenience' sake.
2. Tomorrow's work.
3. The day's earnings.
4. Five minutes' rest.
5. For goodness' sake.
6. China's foreign debts.
7. His heart's desire.
8. The whole world knows.

(One should not use personification unless he is sure it is quite right, because personification is difficult to use and too much of it is bad taste. Instead of *the mountain's top, the car's wheels, the river's mouth* and *the road's corner,* one should use the simpler *mountain top, car wheels, river mouth* and *road corner.* And instead of *China's army,* one could more easily and safely say *the Chinese army.* The use of *she* and *her* should especially be restricted.)

Sex and Gender

4.70. Sex and Gender.—Gender is the grammatical distinction of sex in language. Natural sex and grammatical gender need not always be the same, and the gender of words may vary in different periods and different languages. Thus, in German, the words for *maiden* and *woman* (*das Mädchen, das Weib*) belong to the neuter gender, and in old English, the word *girl* could be used for young people of both sexes. In German today, the sun is still considered as feminine and the moon as maschline, exactly contrary to the Chinese conceptions of 太阳, 太阴. It is strange also that, while the Chinese talk so much about sex distinctions (男女有别), they have not developed a distinction between *he* and *she* in their language, while the European people who talk so much about sexual equality should insist on this *he–she* distinction. The Chinese character for "she" (她) dates back only to 1917.

With this new character, written Chinese can express even a feminine plural (她们, feminine "they"), which cannot be expressed in English. Among the European languages, the English is most like the Chinese in sweeping away all useless gender distinctions (such as Old English for *mouth* masculine, *tongue* feminine, *eye* neuter, and similar nonsense in modern French and German, as German for *coffee* mas., *milk* fem., and *knife* neu.), the meaning of which the best grammarians of today are not able to find out.

4.71. Masculine, Feminine, Common and Neuter Genders. ——A word may be masculine (male) or feminine (female), or it may belong to the common gender (both sexes), or it may belong to neuter (neither sex). It should be noticed that things like stone, paper, pencil, water may be regarded of course as having no sex, while frogs, teachers, workers and students should be regarded as being of both sexes, although this makes no difference in English grammar. It should also be noticed that all the pronn. except *he* (e.g., *we, they, I, you*) can be used without any sex distinction, and that the common gender is really the most convenient of all to use. While more and more women are coming to be senators, judges and parliament members, the best cooks and tailors are men, and not women, so that it is best to leave these words in the common gender. Whenever a distinction is desirable, we can always add some distinguishing word, as in *male cook, female cook, man-servant, maidservant, boy student, girl student, boy friend, girl friend, woman governor, female judge, lady teacher,* etc. The word *man,* representing all human beings, may be used in the common gender, as *her part in man's* (mankind's) *history of progress* and *No man can tell.* Further

examples of common gender are: *cousin, parent, relative, lover, author* (although *authoress* may also be used for a woman author), *worker, journalist, reporter, editor, doctor* (*doctress* is chiefly in jocular use), *missionary, nurse* (there are male nurses), *fool, neighbour, barber, hair-dresser, secretary, scientist, chairman* (besides the modern *chairwoman*), etc. The word *woman* can always be added to these words (*woman doctor, woman worker*), while the word *lady* is limited to the higher classes (*lady doctor, lady teacher, lady scientist*). Likewise *girl* is used for young girls, as in *girl reporter, girl worker.*

4.72. Animals and Persons of Different Sex.—It is natural that we have different words for animals and persons of different sex. In the case of animals, we do not trouble to distinguish the sex of frogs, snakes, flies, and grasshoppers by different words, while we have different words for animals which are closer to us, as *bull, cow, cock, hen.* When we want to include both sexes with these one-sex words, the only way is to use both, as *ten brothers and sisters* (7 brothers and 3 sisters, or 3 brothers and 7 sisters, or any other combination). Some commoner examples are:—

Mas.	*Fem.*	*Mas.*	*Fem.*
king	queen	landlord	landlady
father	mother	prince	> princess
brother	sister	count (earl)	> countess
uncle	aunt	duke	> duchess
nephew	niece	baron	> baroness
gentleman	lady	Jew	> Jewess
master	> mistress	gander	goose
actor	> actress	ram	ewe
god	> goddess	stallion	mare
heir	> heiress	lion	> lioness

emperor	>	empress	tiger	>	tigress
negro	>	negress	hero	>	heroine
dog		bitch	he-devil		she-devil
he-goat		she-goat	bridegroom	<	bride
cock		hen	widower	<	widow
peacock		peahen	monk		nun
bull, ox		cow	bachelor		(old) maid
drake		duck	lad		lass

CHAPTER V

NUMBER AND QUANTITY

5.10. The Notions of Number and Quantity.—There are things that can be numbered or counted (boy, book, ship, school), and things that cannot be numbered or counted (water, air, fame, honesty). This applies to all languages. It would be nonsense to say "one water," "two water" either in Chinese or in English. For things that cannot be counted, however, we can express their quantity or amount, as "much water," "a little water," "a great deal of water," and "a basin (or basinful) of water." The difference expressed by *one boy, two boys* is called number (数), while the difference expressed by *much water, little water* is called quantity (量).

This distinction between number and quantity, however, is not kept in the Chinese notion of *to* (多) and *shao* (少). Thus, we say in Chinese 僧多粥少, disregarding the fact that monks can be counted, but congee cannot. In English, we have to say "many monks" (not "much monks"), but "little congee" (not "few congee").

NUMBER	QUANTITY
many dollars, cents	*much* money
many weeks, days	*much* time
many books, stories	*much* reading
many heads	*much* thinking
three more chances	*little* chance (possibility)
too few lessons	*too little* grammar
a few sick men	*a little* pain, sickness
two or three dishes	*not much* food

many good qualities	*a great deal of* pride
a number of cups	*a big quantity of* tea
a large number of letters	*a big quantity of* mail
three volumes, copies	*a little* history, poetry

But even the English language does not observe this distinction in some words. The words *some, a lot, more, no* can be applied to both classes of words. Thus we have:—

some days, weeks	*some* time
some rooms	*some* space
some books, lessons	*some* knowledge, grammar
some chances	*some* possibility, chance
some good dishes	*some* food
a lot of showers	*a lot of* rain
lots of tables	*lots of* wood
more ships	*more* speed
less shipwrecks	*less* danger
no lamp	*no* light

Exercise 39. Make some sentences with the following material:—

many, too many, not many, not much, a great deal of, no little, a great number of, a good deal of, a little less, some more	ink, rain, sunshine, chances, beautiful girls, noise, pride, bowls, food, money, kindness, good luck, harm, danger, light.

5.11. Mass-Words: Grain of Sand, Bushel of Rice, etc.— Besides the things that can be counted and are usually counted, there is a group of things that can be counted, but usually are not counted. Thus we say *You eat a great deal of rice/ She has beautiful hair / There's a large quantity of sand.* We never trouble to count the rice we eat, or the hair on a wo-

man's head, or the sand a child is playing with. When we want to count it, or express the number, we can say *a grain of rice, a piece of hair, three grains of sand.* These may be called countable mass-words.

Then, we have the mass-words that really cannot be counted, but can only be measured by measures of quantity. Sometimes, we can count the drops of rain and drops of water, but nobody can count the drops of water in a basin or a river. We can, however, measure water, as we can also measure the countable mass-words such as sand, fruit and rice. Thus we can say *a bushel of rice* or *sand,* and *a pint of water.* The following expressions of quantity are useful:—

One *pint* (about two tumblerfuls) =品脱（流质量名约二玻璃杯额）.

One *gallon* (8 pints) =加仑（八品脱）.

A *picul*=担，石. A *bushel*=斗.

Three *inches* of snowfall or rainfall=雪积三（英）寸，雨量三（英）寸之高.

One *ampere* (electric current orflow)=安培.

One *volt* (electro-motive force or strength: a 100-volt current cannot make a 220-volt lamp bright enough, because the force or strength is not sufficient)=伏特.

One *watt* (electro-motive power as measured by work done: a 220-volt bulb means a bulb suitable for an electric force of 220 volts, but a 70-watt bulb means a bulb that can give so much light, about 100 candle-powers. Thus bulbs in the same city generally must have the same voltage, but may have different degrees of lighting power)=瓦，瓦特.

Thirty-two *candle power(s)* (speaking of lights) =三十二支光（烛力）

Fifteen *horse-power(s)*=十五马力 (h.p.) (one h.p.=the power to lift 550 pounds a foot high during a second).

Tons of money—大堆，整千整万 A *quantity* of paper 多少

Heaps of work 一大堆
Piles of letters 一大堆
Lots of rice 许多
A *lot* of time 许多
A *mountain* of printing paper 堆床叠架
A *sea* of faces 人山人海
A *shower* of criticism 一阵
A *package* of things 一包
A *packet* of presents 一捆
A *sack* of flour 一袋
A *wilderness* of sweets (遍野)极多
A *world* of trouble 极多,无穷
A *mouthful* of water 一口
A big *amount* of money 大宗(数额)
An *ocean* of printing type 一片茫茫
A *handful* of men (一把)几个
A *spoonful* of salt 一汤匙
A *jugful* of water 一水瓶
A *basketful* of flowers—篮,一筐
A *tumblerful* of milk 一玻璃杯
A *tin* of tomato soup 一罐
A *bag* of clothing 一袋
A *pack* of letters 一束
A *jar* of honey 一瓶
A *pot* of tea 一壶
A *bunch* of grapes 一束

Many of these words can of course be used for countable things also, as *a bag of letters, beans* or *fruits.* We can say *a lot of, a pile of, an ocean of,* or *lots of, piles of, oceans of* with practically no difference in meaning. For collective words, see § 5.23. See also § 6.20. for expressions of weight, and § 6.40 for expressions of size and distance.

Exercise 40. Try to use the expressions "a number of" and "a quantity of" in several sentences and show the contrast in meaning.

5.12. Abstract Nouns: Piece of Luck.—We have seen already (§ 4.22) that abstract nn. can be made concrete by the addition of words like *case, instance, form, piece, bit, act,* etc. Thus we cannot count abstract "information," but we can count the "pieces of information". Also, we cannot count "foolishness" or "malaria," but we can count the "acts of foolishness (or folly)" and "cases of malaria." Otherwise, abstract nn. are used like mass-words, as *a great deal of kindness, much kindness,*

no little care, no little trouble, etc.

Exercise 41. Try to use the words *instances, cases, forms, acts, piece, bit* in connexion with abstract words like *punishment, pleasure, theft, typhoid fever, nonsense, trouble, divorce, marriage, jealousy, poverty, disloyalty, dishonesty.*

Singular and Plural

5.20. The Plural Endings -s and -es.—In English, we distinguish between singular (one thing) and plural (more than one). As remarked above, mass-words and abstract nn. have no number but only quantity, and so are not included here in the study of number. Most English nn. now have come to use the ending *-s* as a sign of the plural number. We may call these plurals in *-s* (or *-es*) regular plurals, while other plurals not so formed may be called irregular plurals.

This *-s* ending is normally or usually pronounced as [z]. Only after *p, t, k* do we have the pronunciation [-ps, -ts, -ks], because *p, t, k* have no voice but only breath, and it is unnatural to put in voice again with a [z]. After the sounds [s, z, ʃ, ʒ, tʃ, dʒ], we say [iz] and spell the ending with *-es,* because it is diffcult to pronounce *s-z, ch-z, j-z,* etc. together. Practise pronouncing the following words correctly:—

[-z]	songs	rows
fees	things	days
eyes	dames	boys
rickshas	dimes	tins
twos	wives	hens
heroes	bulbs	dogs
potatoes	sobs	legs
laws	tubs	girls

pails
miles

[-dz]

hands
birds
beds
kinds
cards

[-ps]

cups
caps
tips
heaps
ropes

[-ts]

seats
hats
rats
cats
carts
streets
hearts
students

moments

[-ks]

weeks
books
mistakes
marks
cakes
brooks
dikes

[-siz]

cases
faces
laces
classes
boxes
courses
voices
bases
pieces

[-ziz]

noses
roses
phrases

causes
noises
exercises
diseases

[-ʃiz]

ashes
dishes
bushes
fishes
wishes

[-tʃiz]

churches
matches
torches
watches

[-dʒiz]

ages
edges
pages
judges
bridges

With nn. ending in [s, θ, f] sounds, these sounds are often (but not always) changed into [z, ð, v], due to the influence of the voiced [z]. This change in pronunciation is sometimes indicated in the spelling, and sometimes not. [ð] is pronounced like *th* in *this, thee,* quite akin to [z].

[-s — -ziz]

house — houses

[-θ — ðz]

bath —baths
path — paths

youth — youths	knife — knives
oath — oaths	self — selves
mouth — mouths	shelf — shelves
wreath — wreaths	calf — calves
cloth[-ɔ(:)-] — clothes [-ou-]	leaf — leaves
[-f — -vz]	thief — thieves
wife — wives	loaf — loaves
life — lives	staff [-ɑ:-] — staves [-ei-]

The plurals *clothes, staves* (piece of clothing, wooden strip in a tub) have developed meanings different from the singular. The change in pronunciation does not occur in all words of the same endings. Thus we have:—

[-siz] in *horses, cases, races, courses.*
[-θs] in *hearths* [hɑ:θs], *heaths, months, tenths.*
[-fs] in *roofs, proofs, chiefs, safes, strifes.*

In *truths* and *earths,* usage still varies: both [ðz] and [θs] are used.

5.21. Boys, Ladies, Pianos, Potatoes.—Nn. ending in *y* and *o* are sometimes written with *-ys, -os,* and sometimes *-ies, -oes* in their plural forms. There is a fairly good rule for nn. in *-y,* but there is nothing but utter confusion in the case of the nn. in *-o,* and the best advice is to look up the dictionary whenever in doubt.

"-ys" [*y* after vowel]:	*boys, toys, days, trays.* (also pulleys, *whys*).
"-ies" [*y* after consonant]:	*ladies, stories, kiddies, flies, duties, armies.*
"-os" [o after vowel]:	*bamboos, Hindoos, taboos, folios, curios, embryos, portfolios.*
[long words]:	*generalissimos, archipelagos, manifestos, negritos.*
[foreign-looking words]:	*pianos, solos, photos, grottos, fiascos,*

albinos.

[proper names]: *Romeos, Galileos, Neros.*

"-oes"[some familiar plurals]: *potatoes, heroes, negroes, mosquitoes, buffaloes.*

English spelling is here unreasonable, as usual, but there is nothing else to do except following the usage.

5.22. Irregular Plurals: Fish, Dozen and Alumni.—The plurals dealt with in the preceding sections may be considered regular plurals. There are some English plurals which do not add an *-s*, or which add nothing at all.

(a) Irregular Changes:

tooth——teeth *mouse—mice* *brother—brethren* (brothers)
foot—feet *ox—oxen* *child—children*
goose—geese

(b) No Change:

3,000 *cattle.*
450 *sheep.*
A lot of *fish, salmon, trout.*
Keep *fowl, sheep, swine.*
Shoot 20 *snipe, wild duck, deer.*
Three *dozen* [adj.] apples.
Three *dozen* [n.] of apples.——but: *dozens* of them, did it *dozens* of times, pack it in *dozens.*
Three *score* and ten (=seventy).
Three *hundred* [adj.] bottles.
Take three *hundred* [n.].——but: have seen *hundreds* of them, *hundreds* and *thousands.*

Most of these keep the singular form because they are regarded as collectives (*cattle* as a whole, *fish* as a whole, *three dozen* as a whole), or as mass-words (*snipe, duck, deer*

hunted because of their *fish,* which is a mass–word). When these words are not so regarded, we can use the plural forms with *–s* (some *fishes, ducks* or *fowls* in the backyard). In our human selfishness, we often think of the fish in the hunted animals, and forget that they are individual beings. This is especially clear in the phrase "fish, flesh and fowl" (鱼，肉，鸡鸭等). *Cattle, swine* and *sheep* are never used with *–s* as collective nn. *Dozen, score, hundred, thousand* generally do not take an *–s* when used after words of number (*five dozen, a few hundred,* but *dozens* and *hundreds*).

(c) Foreign Plurals:

Latin

alumnus............alumni
datum ....data
medium ....media
stratum ....strata
bacterium ....bateria
genius ....genii
larva ....larvæ
formula ....formulæ (or: formulas)
index ....indices (or: indexes)
appendix ....appendices (or: appendixes)
series ....series
species ....species
apparatus ....apparatus (or:apparatuses)

Hebrew

cherub ....cherubim (or:cherubs)
seraph ....seraphim (or: seraphs)

Greek

analysis ....analyses
thesis ....theses
crisis ....crises
hypothesis ....hypotheses
phenomenon ....phenomena
criterion ....criteria (or: criterions)

French

bureau..................bureux
monsieur...............messieurs
madam(e) .... mesdames

Russian

Bolshevik ....Bolsheviki (or:Bolsheviks)
Menshevik ....Mensheviki (or:Mensheviks)

5.23. Collectives: Government Have and Government Has.—We have seen already (§ 4.50) that collective nn. can be considered as singular (one group) or as plural (many individuals). Of course, collective nn. may have plurals also, as "the different *nations*," "all the *classes*," "the European *Governments*." The peculiar thing is that the ***singular*** collective may be used both as singular and as plural. Thus, we say *There are*, or *is*, *a group of boys*, all depending on whether we are thinking of the group or of the boys. It is better to say *The class elect him as representative* than *The class elects him as representative*, because it is the class members who do the electing. On the other hand, it is better to say *The class is represented by him* rather than *The class are represented by him*, because we mean the class as a whole is represented. Study also the following:—

The train (dead thing) *arrives* (never *arrive*).
The library (dead thing) *was* burnt (not *were*).
There *are* (or *is*) a class of words called "collectives."
The family *have* (or *has*) moved out.
The Jewish tribe *are* (or *is*) a wandering race.
The people *are* standing in the rain.
Look at the crowd. *They* must number over 10,000.
If you let the other class know, *they* will laugh at you.
One thousand *people*. Twelve *clergy*. Twenty *police*. Six hundred *sheep*.

What one must remember is to be consistent. We should not say, "The Cabinet *has* decided at *their* last meeting," or "The Cabinet *have* decided at *its* last meeting," although this is a natural and common mistake, due to change of mind or carelessness. It always makes for clearness to use

the words *the members of,* when we mean the separate individuals in the group.

Exercise 42. Try to use the following collective words and expressions:—

1. *The members of* the class.
2. *The members of* the church.
3. *The members of* the family.
4. A *group* of people, students, children.
5. A *flock* of sheep, geese.
6. A *herd* of cattle.
7. A *pack* of thieves, fools, rascals, monkeys, hounds.
8. A *bunch* of ne'er-do-wells, fools, green-horns.
9. A *gang* of thieves, ruffians, politicians.
10. A *party* of travellers, guests, visitors.
11. A *set* of instruments, papers, books.
12. A *suit* of clothing, a *suite* of rooms.
13. A *swarm* of bees, insects, ants, beggars.
14. An *army* of beggars, workers, troops.
15. A *troop* of monkeys, soldiers, fighters.
16. A *crowd* of spectators, men and women.
17. A *troupe* or *company* of actors, acrobats, magicians.
18. A *caravan* of camels, merchants across the desert.
19. A *batch* of returned students, graduates (of the same year).

5.24. Psychological Intent: Three Weeks Is Heaps of Time.—When we say "Five dollars *is* too dear," or "Ten minutes *is* enough," or "Three years *is* too long for an engagement," we are really using a "collective" meaning, so the vb. in the singular is quite right, and English commonsense has triumphed over grammatical nonsense. Similarly, we can say:—

Three weeks **is** heaps of time.

Another *three days* **was** wasted.
Every *five minutes* he dropped in once.
Take **any** *three* of them.
Before *three days* **was** passed, the landlord came again.
Take **that** *three dollars* and buy yourself a new straw hat.
Their honeymoon lasted only seventeen days. But **that** wonderful *two weeks and half* (or: two-weeks-and-half) **was** the happiest time of her life.

In the expression "mother and child" (母女俩儿) the conception is really "collective" although we seldom use a singular vb. with it. Similarly, we have the following:—

They are **a** second *Romeo and Juliet* (pair of sweethearts).
He is **a** second *(Dr.) Jekyll and (Mr.) Hyde* (double personality).
The husband and wife look like *brother and sister.*
This *ball and socket* **is** broken.
He was riding in **a** *coach-and-four* (horses).
Hand me **that** *cup and saucer.*
Bread and butter **is** a kind of food.
The **whole** *bag and baggage* **was** thrown out into the street.
Peace and security **is** what we want.
Sympathy and understanding **is** (or: **are**) required.
Six and six **is** (or: **are**) **twelve.**

5.25. The Generic Singular.—When we say "*Man* is mortal," we are using *man* as a class-word, meaning "*All men* are mortal." We make the singular *man* represent all members of mankind. Generally we use the article *the* in this connexion, but *a* may also be used with the same meaning. Study the following:—

There is nothing to be proud of for *the teacher* to cram ever so many grammatical rules and definitions into *the student's* head.

The Chinese student of English **is** often **misled** by the English spelling.

The student often **remembers** *his* marks and **forgets** about *his* studies.

Everything has been done for the comfort of *the traveller.*

The policeman **is supposed** to be courteous to *the public.*

The King Ching of Ch'i [齐景公] says, "If *the king* **is** not like a king, *the minister* is not like a minister, *the father* **is** not like a father, and *the son* is not like a son, how am I going to get anything to eat, even if the people have rice?" ['信如君不君,臣不臣,父不父,子不子,虽有粟,吾得而食诸?']

Mencius says, "If *the ruler* **regards** *the minister* (or: *ministers*) as dust and grass, then *the minister* (or: *ministers*) **will regard** *the ruler* as *his* (or: *their*) enemy." ['君之视臣如土芥，臣则视君如寇雠']

The life of *the Chinese daughter-in-law* was a pretty hard one.

The fox is a night prowling animal.

Exercise 43. Learn to use some of the following expressions referring to whole classes:—

1. a (or: the) son's duty
2. the smoker's throat (irritation due to smoking)
3. an (or: the) actor's life
4. a (or: the) child's teeth
5. the scientist's method
6. the Englishman in China
7. the student's studies
8. the use of the diploma
9. the ass's ['æsiz] ears
10. the cat's-paws
11. the foreigner in China
12. the modern girl
13. the rickshaw coolie

5.26. Natural Plurals.—There are objects which naturally go in pairs (as *trousers, scales, scissors*), or in greater

number (as *measles, ashes, suds*), and it is natural that we use these habitually in the plural form with *-s*. When such pairs or sets of things can be easily separated, then of course the singular is also occasionally used, as *a shoe* (but not *a trouser*), and *a wave, a bubble* (but not *a sud*). All this is very natural. In referring to them as one thing, we generally say *a pair of scissors, a pair of breeches*, etc. Further examples are:—

pincers 钳子	preparations部署,筹备	proceeds 赢利
forceps 外科钳子	embers 灰炉	earnings 收入
tongs 火钳	remains 遗骸	belongings 所有物件
bellows 风箱	arms 兵器	surroundings 周围
compasses 圆规	colours 大旗	grounds 宅地
spectacles 眼镜	bowels 肠肚	contents 内容
cross-roads 十字街	intestines 肠	assets 资产
arrangements 准备,接洽	lungs 肺脏	odds and ends零碎杂物

We seldom say *the preparation* or *arrangement for a departure*, but *the preparations* or *arrangements*, because naturally there are many things to prepare. (On the other hand, we may say *the arrangement of the room* and *the preparation for tomorrow's lesson*, because the meaning is clearly singular). A person's earnings, belongings, and a company's assets are also generally plural in number, so the use of plural is quite natural.

Notice also the natural use of plurals in the following:—

shake hand*s* with=握手
change place*s* with=易地而居
be (or make) friend*s* with=交友
be quit*s* with=两相抵消，两无负欠
rub shoulder*s* with=耳鬓厮磨

Usage varies with regard to **the names of the sciences** ending in *-ics*, as *physics, mathematics, ethics, classics, metaphysics, esthetics.* These nn. may be used both as singulars and as plurals (*Mathematics is* or *are*). But, generally, it is better to use them as singulars when referring to the sciences, and as plurals when referring to a more general meaning. E.g.—

> *Physics* **is** changing our conceptions of the universe.
> *Mathematics* **is** easy to teach when you can make it interesting to the students.
> His *mathematics* (figures and counting) **are** all wrong.
> The *acoustics* (resonance of sound) of the hall **are** very bad.
> The *ethics* of the play **are** above criticism.

Even here no hard and fast rule can be laid down, and a great deal of freedom is allowed—and taken.

5.27. Differentiated Plurals.—It is also natural that the plurals of a good many words develop definite meanings which are different from the singulars. *Arms* means the different weapons, such as rifles, swords and bayonets, and *goods* means things sold or bought by merchants. Study the following:—

Sing.	*Plur.*
custom 风俗	*customs 关税
manner 式样	manners 礼貌
moral 箴言	morals 道德
letter 字母	letters 文学
*paper 纸张	papers 公文，报章
*advice 劝告	advices 通知
*air 空气	airs 神气
look 视	looks 形貌
brain 脑	brains 脑力

Sing.	*Plur.*
pain 痛	pains 劳力
quarter 四分之一	quarters 住所
news 新闻	news 新闻
means 方法，工具	means 方法，工具
wage 工资	wages 工资
tiding 消息	tidings 消息
glass 玻璃	glasses 眼镜
gut 肠	guts 魄力，耐力
work 工作	works 工厂，作品

It should be noticed that (a) words marked * have also the meaning of the corresponding singular or plural, as *an air of contempt, a state paper, the customs of the country;* (b) *means* and *news* are used both as singulars and plurals; and (c) the singular forms *wage* and *tiding* are very seldom used. Examples of the use of these plurals are:—

Take great *pains* (=take trouble) to...
Have received *advices* not to ship the goods.
The Prince's living *quarters.*
He has no *guts* in him.
The paper *works.* The *works* of an author.
Must find a *means* to reach him.
Received *this news* yesterday
He has no *manners.*
She is proud of her *looks.*
The news was published in the *papers.*

5.28. Some Special Cases: Sons-in-Law, the Miss Rogers, etc.—There are some special cases which may be mentioned here. These are (a) compound words where the *-s* must be added to the principal words, (b) compound words with no clear principal words, (c) proper names, (b) letters and figures, (e) words or phrases quoted, and (f) phrases

where the first n. used as an adj. and therefore cannot take an -*s*. Study the following:—

(*a*)

looker*s*-on
passer*s*-by
hanger*s*-on
son*s*-in-law
brother*s*-in-law
sister*s*-in-law
bride*s*-to-be
maid*s*-of-honour
editor*s*-in-chief
commander*s*-in-chief
major-general*s*
men-of-war
court*s*-martial
vice-president*s*
maid-servant*s*
the House*s* of Parliament
the Lord*s* of the Admiralty
lord*s* justice*s*
lord*s*-chancellor*s*

(*b*)

forget-me-not*s*
the fourth-of-July*s*
go-down*s*
go-between*s*
grown-up*s*
ne'er-do-well*s*
runaway*s*
merry-go-round*s*

(*c*)

the brother*s* Martin
the Miss*es* Martin (or: the Miss Martin*s*)
the young Martin*s*
the Martin*s*
Martin Luther*s*
the Wang An-shih*s* 王安石之流
the Shakespeare*s*
the Edison*s*
the Henry Ford*s*

(*d*)

cross your t'*s* (or: t*s*)
dot your i'*s* (or: i*s*)
don't mix up your n'*s* and ng'*s* (or: ns, ngs)
there are four s'*s*
three 5'*s* and 6'*s* (read fives and sixes)

(*e*)

the why*s* and how*s*
take care of your *a's* and *the's*
too many *don'ts* (or: "*don't's*")
get sick of the lady's *shall nots* (or: "*shall not's*")
frightened by too many "*You will never do's*"
ever ready with his "*Yes, sir's*"

(*f*)	noun clause*s*
five-foot book-shelf	grammar exercise*s*
the five-gallon tin*s*	stone wall*s*
a five-dollar note	tooth-brush*es*
a million-dollar contract	tooth-pick*s*
trouser-pocket*s*	brick building*s*
a seven-year-old boy	head servant*s*
an eight-day clock	boy messenger*s*
girl friend*s*	book cover*s*
woman-worker*s*	key-hole*s*

Numerals

5.30. Numerals, Fractions and Multiples.—The greatest difficulty in English counting for the Chinese student is the expression of the Chinese idea of *wan* (万), which is "ten thousand" in English. When the student wishes to express his idea of *wan* in terms of thousands, he must remember to multiply it by ten. The next thing to remember is that a hundred *wan* makes a "million," and hence a thousand *wan* is simply "ten million." No end of confusion has been caused by this difference in notion.

one *wan*=ten thousand	10,000.
ten *wan*=hundred thousand	100,000.
hundred *wan*=one million	1,000,000.
thousand *wan*=ten million	10,000,000.
ten *wan wan*=one billion	1,000,000,000.

The English way of counting is really very clear through its division into threes in the reading of long sums; thus 1,001,000 is easily seen to be *one million and one thousand,* while 10,010,000 is *ten million and ten thousand.* Also there is more regard for accuracy in English statements of number;

thus a meeting of "over one *wan* people" in Chinese is really the equivalent of a meeting of "fifteen thousand people" or so in English.

The expressions *fifteen hundred* or *seventeen hundred fifty* (for 1,500 or 1,750) are quite common for figures below two thousand. The year "1930" should therefore be read as *nineteen (hundred) thirty*, which is better than the clumsy *one thousand nine hundred thirty*.

For ordinals (*first, second,* etc.), see § 8.50.

Learn also the following expressions of fractions and multiples, and vary them for yourself:—

(1) Percentage and fractions:—

1. *One-third* (1/3); *two-thirds* (2/3); *three-quarters* (3/4); *four-fifths* (4/5); *nine-tenths* (9/10); *one-fiftieth* of a second [一秒五十分之一].
2. *One-third* of it **is** gone. *One third* of them **are** gone.
3. *Seven-tenths* (of the men) **are** over twenty (years old).
4. This is *two-thirds* water. *Two-thirds* of it **is** (or **are**) water.
5. *Eighty-five per cent* (85%) are illiterate. We have *eighty-five per cent* illiteracy.
6. A *hundred per cent* profit [加倍得利]; *hundered per cent* Americans [十足美国人]; *hundred per cent* attendance [全部出席；又指未尝缺课一次].
7. This is *seventy per cent* (七成，百分之七十) alcohol. *Seventy per cent* of it **is** alcohol. *Seventy per cent* of the men **are** diseased.
8. *Three per mille* [千分之三].
9. *Decimal three per cent* (0.3%).
10. *Ten-decimal-naught-naught-three per cent* (10.003%).
11. *Thirty-three and one-third per cent* (33 1/3%).
12. *Twenty-five per cent* (25% or 1/4); *fifty per cent* (50% or 1/2); *seventy-five per cent* (75% or 3/4).

(2) Discounts:—

13. A *five per cent* discount [九五折].
14. A *thirty per cent* discount [七折]. (What about '八五折,' '九折', '六折'?)

(3) Multiples:—

15. *Ten times* easier.
16. *Ten times* quicker and safer.
17. *Three times* bigger; *three times* as big as; *three times* the size of.
18. *Twice* that length; *twice* as long as.
19. Longer *by half;* longer *by fifty per cent* [加半长].
20. *Three times* nine **is** (or **are**) twenty-seven ($3 \times 9 = 27$).
21. *Twice* two is (or **are**) four ($2 \times 2 = 4$).
22. With *tenfold* force.

(4) Chances:—

23. *Nine cases out of ten* it will fail [十九不成功].
24. *Ten to one* (*The chances are ten to one* that) he will lose [十九必败].
25. He has *one chance out of every five thousand* [一与五千之比] to win.
26. *The chances are one out of every nine hundred, once in nine hundred* [九百次中有一次].

(5) Half:—

27. *The half of* ten is five.
28. Two pounds *and* (*a*) *half;* two *and* (*a*) *half* pounds [二磅半].
29. *Half of* it **is** bad. *Half of* them **are** bad.
30. A *half* share, a *half* length, *half a* share, *half a* length, *half an* hour, *Half the* men (are gone). (These are regarded as nouns, as "Give me *half a* loaf," "Another *half an* hour is gone"="*Half* of an hour.")
31. *Half and half, fifty-fifty* [各半，二一添作五].

32. *Half* as much (or: many) again, more *by half* [加半倍].
33. *Not half* as tall as... [不及...一半高].

(6) **Parts:—**

34. *A part. A portion. A section.*
35. *The majority, the greater part of, the greater number of, most of* (them), They are *mostly...*, They are *for the most part...* [大半, 多数].
36. *The minority, the smaller part (portion, number) of* [小半, 少数].
37. *Part of* this is true. This is *partly* true. *Part of* them are gone.
38. Take 3 *parts* of sugar and 6 *parts* of flour [三分糖, 六分面粉].
39. Add 1 *part* (of) alcohol to 10 *parts* (of) water.
40. Divide it *in parts.*

5.31. Indefinite Number.—Learn the following expressions of indefinite or approximate number and vary them for yourself:—

(1) **One or two, etc.** (一两,两三):—

1. *One or two* days. *Two or three* days. *Six or seven* people. *Ten or twelve* people.
2. A *couple* of days, weeks, oranges.
3. A day *or two.* A week *or two.*
4. You will have to spend a *couple* of thousand dollars for the wedding, not counting the *eight or nine hundred* for the diamond ring alone.

(2) **Some, about, or so, or thereabouts, etc.** (左右):—

5. *Some* thirty days [三十天左右]. (下同)
6. *About* thirty days.
7. *Approximately* thirty days.
8. Thirty days *or so.* A month *or so.*

9. Thirty days *or thereabouts.*
10. He is *somewhere about* thirty-five (years old). We have *somewhere about* nine hundred members.

(3) From ten to fifteen, etc. (十至十五):—

11. There will be about *fifteen to twenty* guests.
12. I am going to remain *ten to fifteen* days.
13. She must be *anywhere between* thirty-two and thirty-six.
14. We shall have *between thirty and forty* people coming to the meeting.
15. He was a popular poet in the *eighteen-sixties* (i.e., 1860—1869).

(4) Over fifty, below fifty, etc. (五十以上, 以下):—

16. *Over* fifty days (not *fifty more*).
17. *More than* fifty people.
18. *A little over* fifty, seventy.
19. *Not quite* fifty.
20. *Less than* fifty. There are *less than* forty days left.
21. *Sixty-odd* people.
22. He sold it for a hundred *seventy-odd* dollars.
23. He would not sell it for *below* hundred-fifty (or: for *less than* hundred-fifty).

(5) Hundreds, dozens, scores, etc. (整千, 整万):—

24. *Thousands* and *tens of thousands* of soldiers.
25. *Hundreds of thousands* of dollars.
26. There are *hundreds* (*dozens, thousands*) of people waiting for your job.
27. I have seen *scores and scores* (*hundreds and hundreds*) of such cases. (Cf. *Three score and ten* is the age of man.)
28. Some *hundreds*. Some *dozens*. Some *tens*.

(6) A number of, any number of (多少, 多,少):—

29. I have *a number of* things [多少事] to do.

30. There are *a number of* students outside.
31. *A few* friends. *A great many* friends. *A good many* friends. *Not a few* friends. *A lot of* friends. *Lots of* friends. *Many, many* friends. *A great number of* friends.
32. He has *any number of* friends (i.e., very many).
33. He has *I don't know how many* friends (i.e., very many).
34. I have told you this *I don't know how many* times [已经告诉你不知多少次].

Care should be taken to say *over hundred, over ninety* and not *hundred more, ninety more,* as many Chinese students do.

For expressions of increase, decrease and comparison (*more and more, the more..., the more, as many as*). see Ch. X.

For positive and negative number (*few* and *a few*), see § 3.53.

Conflict of Number

5.40. Conflict of Number.—There are cases where it may be hard to decide whether a singular or a plural should be used. Such troubles never arise in the Chinese language because we do not distinguish the singular and plural endings. English usage, however, has established certain unwritten rules which must be noticed here.

(*a*) One or two *days*. One or two *cases*.
(Cf. a *week* or two, a *case* or two.)

(*b*) Many a *man thinks,* etc.
More than one *person* (for the vb., see next paragraph "*f*").

(*c*) An upper and *a* lower *shelf*.
The upper and *the* lower *shelf*.

(But: the upper and lower *shelves*).
Both the old and *the* new *dress*.
(But: the old and new *dresses*.)
We welcome the new, and say good-bye to *the* old *year*.

When *a* or *the* is repeated, we use the singular, because in *the upper and the lower shelf*, we seem to have the word *shelf* understood already after *the upper: the upper* (*shelf*) *and the lower shelf*. Similarly, *We welcome the new* (*year*), etc.

(*d*) In the case of one thing which belongs to several persons, the case may be quite clear when we mean *their house* or *their houses, their* (common) *journey*, but *their* (separate) *wives* (unless they have a common wife). But it may not be so clear when we have a more abstract meaning. Shall we say *their meaning* or *their meanings?* and *They have made up their mind* or *minds?* Generally when we have a more abstract meaning, we use the singular (§ 4.30), otherwise, we use the plural. Thus we may say "Their *heads* (脑袋) look alike," but "They don't use their *head*" (abstract singular＝用头脑，用脑力). Also, in regular phrases, we usually keep the singular, as "They came *on foot* (by walking)," "They *took a fancy* to her." Thus:—

They have no *use* (abstract).
The *uses* (separate) of the different parts.
The soldiers appeared *in uniform* (phrase).
The men appeared in *formal dress* (phrase).
The women wore bright-coloured *dresses* (some in green, some in lavender, etc.).
The *life* (abstract) of the peasants.
The *lives* (separate) of great men.
Those three had also *a hand* (abstract, — a share) in the matter.
We must wash our *faces* (or even *face*, regarding "washing

face" as a regular phrase). But: We must tell them this to save our *face* (abstract,=honour, good name [面子]).

All of them are *in trouble* (phrase). But: All of them are in *troubles* of some sort or other (separate).

The foreigners can leave our internal wars alone; they need not *put their foot in it* (=they need not interfere; not *feet, them*).

This happened right under the *nose* (not *noses*) of the authorities.

We must *keep an eye on* that young girl (=watch her and keep her from going wrong).

Opium-smokers always have *a* bad *digestion.*

People who want to preserve our "old morality" generally have *a* bad *conscience.*

People who oppose the emancipation of women generally lead *an* immoral *life* (or immoral *lives,* =have concubines, seduce young girls, etc).

Men of bad *temper,* strong *determination,* good *health,* poetic *imagination* (all abstract words).

Words of different *gender, number, meaning, case,* etc.

We even often say *those kind of things, those kind of people* (besides *that kind* and *those kinds*).

5.41. Number in Verbs.—The English language still distinguishes *have* and *has, is* and *are, comes* and *come,* although it does not distinguish the singular and plural of *had, did, came* (but *was* and *were*). This has given rise to many unnecessary difficulties, over which the best writers from Shakespeare, Milton, Swift to Shelley, Thackeray and Macaulay often stumble.* The case is quite clear when you have *A boy goes, Two boys go,* but in *What China needs are good roads,* the best minds often get confused and become helpless.

*For quotations, see *Modern English Grammar,* II, pp. 169-184.

Many of these difficulties are due to psychological causes (forgetfulness, unpreparedness, change of mind, influence of the nearest words, etc.). One should try to avoid these errors by keeping a sharp look-out.

(1) Subject and complement in different number: follow the subject.

My only pleasure *is* the movies.
The movies *are* my only pleasure.
All that *is* simply ways of deceiving the people.
The Greeks *were* a wonderful race.
Our only guide *is* the stars.
The stars *are* our only guide.
His food *was* fruit and goat-milk.
Fruit and goat-milk *were* his food.

(2) One of those is, one of those who are: see what you mean.—We say "One of the boys *is* sick," but "He is one of the boys who *are* sick." In the latter case, there are evidently many sick boys. It is easy to forget this, when the phrase is longer. It the following, the real logical subjects are indicated with bold face.

The **meeting** of so many strangers of so many nationalities *broadens* his mind.
The **putting together** of so many incongruous colours *is* displeasing to the eye.
The **loss** of his mother, wife and three of his beloved children *is* too much for him.
The **apples** grown on this hill *have* a special flavour of their own.
The **results** of the examination *show* that you have been making considerable progress.
One (1) of his **concubines** (2), who all *have* (2) their **lovers,**

runs (1) away with hers.

This is one of the best **games** that *are* ever played in Shanghai.

One of the books he bought yesterday *is* torn. (He bought many, but one is torn).

He is one of **those** who always *forget* their engagements.

(3) Subjects of mixed number: use plural verbs,—Here we can have several possibilities:—

(1) Mother *and child were kidnapped.*
(2) Mother *and* children *were* kidnapped.
(3) Mother *or child was* kidnapped.
(4) Mother *or* children *were* kidnapped.

Only the last case calls for attention. **Examples are:—**

One or two examples *have* to be given.
There *are* one or two things that you must remember.

(4) Verbs before subjects: think of your subject beforehand.—The most common form is a sentence beginning with *there is,* as *There is one thing,* but *There are a number of things.* The difficulty is, we may begin by thinking of one thing, and then later on think of other things: *There is a big pearl and* (ofter-thought) *a number of smaller ones* (*are* should be used). Mistakes of this kind are practically impossible to avoid in speaking, because the afterthought actually comes after the phrase *there is* is spoken already, and they are to be found in the writings of the best authors. Consequently, there is some justification for it even in writing. A lady whose attention is captivated and whose soul is set on fire by the sight of a big pearl naturally says—

There *is* a big pearl of wonderful roundness and lustre and a number of smaller ones in her necklace.

and it is hard to condemn her for her bad grammar. A punctilious writer would even purposely write:—

> There *is* a big pearl of wonderful roundness and lustre in her necklace, and a number of smaller ones, besides.

Here *is* is better than *are* because the expression is rounded off by *in her necklace* for the first part, and the second part can be regarded as elliptical with *there are* understood.* Except in such constructions, however, one should generally think of his subject before he uses the verb. Following are correct examples:—

> In the room *are* a table, a bed, and a piano.
> Now *come* all trials and experiences that can happen to a man.
> Under this roof *are* gathered today the most distinguished names of the country.
> Under "university students" *are* included both post-graduates and under-graduates.
> In this city *are* to be found both the most renowned scholars and the worst scoundrels of the country.
> Here *are* the papers he left for you to read.
>
> There *are* a full-page coloured illustration and many smaller ordinary ones in this book.

Where's your manners? is also quite idiomatic.

(5) Pronouns of common number: see which is meant.— The pronn. *who, what, which, none, any, more* may refer to singular or plural. They are therefore singular or plural according to the circumstances: *Who is my friend?* but *Who are my friends?* The same is true of the relative pronn. *who, which* and *that: the thing that angers me, the things that anger me, those who are too lazy,* etc.

*For this point, see *Modern English Usage*, p. 391.

Further examples are:—

More of us *die* in bed than out of it.
The more *is* added, the less it becomes.
None of us *are* (or *is*) willing to die.
None but the brave *deserves* the fair (*but* a prep.).
None but the fools *are* prepared to believe that.
There *is* (or *are*) none left.
Is any of your sisters out?
Are any of your sisters out?

With *what*, one should be much more careful:—

This is, then, what *seem* to be the **reasons** for his resignation.
This is what *seems* to be the **reason** for his resignation.
The paper will publish what *are* considered the best **essays** on the subject.

In the case of a noun clause beginning with *what*, one should always treat it as singular:—

What you say **is** quite true.
What China needs **is** good roads (cf. examples adove).
What angered him **was** the personal attacks.
(Cf. The personal attacks **were** *what angered him*)

(6) Each, as well as, many a, more than one.—These are special cases. *Each, many a* and *more than one* with nn. in the singular almost always take the singular verb. The noun following *as well as* should be entirely excluded in the consideration of the number of the vb.

Each *has* something to say.
Each of them *strikes* the ball in turn.
Each of the stories *is* copied by one student.
The students *copy* **each** a story.
They *strike* the ball **each one** after the other.

Many a man *has* been cheated by him.
More than one person *was* suspected. But there *are* **more than one** person involved in the matter (*are* due to the influence of the nearest *more*).
He, **as well as** his room-mates, *is* suspected.
His room-mates, **as well as** he, *are* suspected.

We should also use *himself* (and not *themselves*) for *each, every one* and *anybody*. (Sometimes *himself or herself* is used, but too frequent use of this is mere foolishness.) On the other hand, *nobody* may take sometimes a *they* after it.

Nobody objects to it, do *they?* (From *No one of them objects*)
Anybody can see this for *himself.*
Every one should sign *his* or *her* name in the book.
Every one must make *his* (quite enough without *or her*) own living.
Each man is fighting for *himself.*

For collective nn. (*class is, class are*) see § 5.23, and for fractions, multiples and words of number (*seven per cent is* or *are*) see § 5.30.

CHAPTER VI

WEIGHT, VALUE, SIZE, SHAPE AND POSITION

6.10. National Differences in These Categories.—The English expressions of weight, value, size, distance, position and shape differ quite considerably from the Chinese. One should learn to use these expressions correctly and to know their exact meaning.

6.20. Expressions of Weight.—There are in measures of weight, as in measures of size and distance, two systems, one the old English system which is in general use, and the other the so-called "metric" system, more in scientific use. The metric system is quite simple. Both *gram* and *gramme* may be used in all these words.

gram	=	about 15 Troy grains
decagram	=	10 grams
hectogram	=	100 grams
kilogram	=	1,000 grams
decigram	=	10th of 1 gram
centigram	=	100th of 1 gram
milligram	=	1,000th of 1 gram

The most common term is *kilogram* which is about 2.2 ordinary pounds. In the old English system, there are again two series of weight measures: one the common weight, or avoirdupois (pr. [ˌævədəˈpɔiz]) weight, and the other used by gold- and silversmiths, called Troy weight. The avoirdupois pound is heavier than the Troy pound, and is equal to 12

Chinese ounces. Study the following equivalents (the abbreviations are put in brackets):—

Common Weight (*avoir.*)

16 drams	=	1 ounce (oz.)
16 ounces	=	1 pound (1b.) = 7,000 grains
112 pounds	=	1 hundredweight (cwt.)
2,240 pounds	=	1 ton
14 pounds	=	1 stone (used in speaking of a man's weight)

Troy Weight

24 grains	=	1 pennyweight (dwt.)
20 pennyweights	=	1 ounce (oz.)
12 ounces	=	1 pound (lb.) = 5,760 grains

Both *pounds, ounces* and *pound, ounce* are used for the plural, but now it is much more common to say *pounds, ounces,* while *stone* is more common than *stones* for the plural (*He weighs twelve stone / a man of twelve stone*).

Notice that in all expressions of weight, size, value, distance, we use the terms of measure immediately after the vbb. *weigh, measure, cost* and the adj. *worth.*

The package *weighs* a pound and half.
It *costs* three dollars.
It is *worth* the money.
It is not *worth* sixpence.
The bed *measures* six feet long.

Compare also expressions of time and number like *It lasts seven minutes, The troops numbered fifteen thousand* and also the expressions, *weighs heavy, weighs much, weighs little, is worth much, is worth little, cost dear, measure long, measure short,* etc.

6.30. Expressions of Value.—In English, there are two

different ways of counting money, the English and the American way. The English way is really as complicated as and only a little less crazy than, the Chinese way of counting dollars and taels and "big money" and "small money." However, there are only three chief units to learn, as follows:—

1 penny = about 2 gold cents
12 pence = 1 shilling = about 25 cts. Gold
20 shillings = 1 pound = about $5.00 Gold

Crown and *sovereign* are names of English coins.

1 crown = 5 shillings
1 halfcrown = 2 shillings and sixpence
1 sovereign = 1 pound

The symbols used are:—

£. s. d. = pound—shilling—pence
£. 6.10.6. = six pound ten and six (ten shillings and sixpence)
£.3 = three pounds
10/6 = ten and six (ten shillings and sixpence)
4/- = four shillings
1/- = one shilling
8d. *or*-/8 = eightpence

The terms *pound* and *penny* require special notice.

five pounds (-*s* usual)
five pound ten (without -*s*)
five pounds sterling (*sterling* used only with exact sums of pounds, as £ 500 stg., but not "five pound ten stg.")
pennies (plural as regards coins)
pence (plural as regards sum or value)
halfpenny (pr. [ˈheipni])
twopence (pr. [ˈtʌpns])
threepence (pr. [ˈθrepns])

twopenny piece (pr. ['tʌpəni])
threepenny piece (pr. ['θrepəni])
fourpence to elevenpence and twentypence written together (pr [-pns])—otherwise written separately (pr. [pens]), e. g., thirteen pence

The American dollar-and-cents system is like the Chinese.

100 cents (cts.) = 1 dollar ($1.00)
10 cents = 1 dime
5 cents = 1 nickel

For the following symbols read as follows:—

$1.00 (U. S.)	:	one dollar U. S. currency
$1.00 G.	:	one dollar gold
$1.50	:	dollar fifty, *or* dollar and half
$3.75	:	three (dollars) seventy-five (cents)

The English terms for the Chinese currency are as follows:—

$1.00 (Mex.)	:	one dollar Mex. (*or* Mexican)
両 25 *or* 25 tls.	:	twenty-five taels
10 Hk. tls.	:	ten Haikwan taels
両 0.03	:	three tael cents
23 cop. *or* cops.	:	twenty-three coppers
cash	=	文; 现洋
big money	=	大洋
small money	=	小洋

Among the non-English foreign currencies, we may mention here the German *mark* (=25 cents Gold) and the French *franc* (=20 cents Gold). We speak also of *paper mark, gold mark* and *paper franc, gold franc*. Notice also expressions like *a dollar's worth of salt-eggs, fifteen-cents' worth of sugar, a dollar note* (banknote) and *a five-pound note*.

6.40. Expressions of Size and Distance.—There are also two systems here, the old English system and the metric system. In the metric system, the meter here is used as the basis, and the other names have prefixes like *deca-*, *kilo-*, *deci-*, *milli-*, which have the same meaning as in the "gram" series (cf. § 6.20). The practically useful words here are:—

meter =	39 inches, a little over a yard
kilometer =	1,000 meters, about two-thirds of a mile
centimeter =	100th of a meter, about 1/3 of an inch

In the old system, there are the following expressions:

inch =	英寸, about 0.73 Chinese in.
foot =	12 inches, about 8.7 Chinese in.
yard =	3 feet = 2.6 Chinese ft.
mile =	1,760 yds., about 3.3 Chinese *li*
furlong =	220 yds., or 8th of a mile
fathom =	6 ft. or 2 yds. (especially in measuring depth of water)
5′ 4″ =	five feet four inches

For the plural, we almost always add an *-s* to these terms, except when they are used as modifiers, as in *a five-foot shelf, a two-yard stick, three inch* (or *inches*) *wide*. Learn also the following expressions of size, and surface and cubic measures:—

four square feet (4 sq. ft.) = four squares, each of which is one foot long and one foot wide; three sq. ft. = three such squares = 三方英尺

four feet square = a square whose sides are all four feet long = 四英尺见方

square mile = 方英里

acre — 4,840 sq. yds. = 英亩 (the Chinese *mu* is a highly shifting measure)

three feet long by four feet wide, *or* three by four (often writ-

ten 3' × 4')
four cubic feet = 四立方英尺
twenty cubic centimeters

Notice that we can say *a thing is the size of..., is twice (half) the size of...* Notice also that we very commonly say *A man is a hundred yards off, The water is four inches deep,* using *a hundred yards* and *four inches* as adverb phrases, and the word *off* as an adjective.

Exercise 44. Learn to use the following expressions:—

1. five feet high
2. five feet four
3. three inches deep (thick)
4. eight by ten
5. a few steps from here
6. a hundred paces from
7. quarter of a mile
8. miles and miles away
9. a long (short) way off
10. a long (short) distance from
11. within sight
12. within call
13. at a stone's throw
14. within a bowshot
15. within an earshot
16. by a long way
17. near at hand
18. about a hundred yards off
19. three blocks further (cross three streets)
20. the size of a pea
21. the height of a lamp-post
22. the thickness of this book
23. about an hour's walk from
24. ten minutes' ride from
25. near (close) by a place

6.50. Expressions of Shape: English Shape-Blindness.— A great difference is noticeable when we compare the English and Chinese notions of shape. Whereas the Chinese seem unable to think of a thing without calling up its shape also, the English language, looked at from the purely Chinese point of view, seems to be spoken by a race of shape-blind people. This is another instance of the highly concrete and synthetic way of Chinese thinking.

English suffices with *a fish, a table, a bookcase, an ox,* etc. But in Chinese, we have, for instance:—

一 条 鱼 *i tiau yu* (one "strip" fish)
一张桌子 *i chang chuo-tse* (one "flat piece" table)
一架书橱 *i chia shu-ch'u* (one "shelf" book-case)
一 头 牛 *i t'ou niu* (one "head" ox)
一 座 山 *i tsuo shan* (one "seat" hill)
一 把 刀 *i pa tao* (one "grip" knife)
一 管 笔 *i kuan pi* (one "tube" brush)
一 盏 灯 *i chan teng* (one "small-cup" lamp)
一湾溪水 *i wan ch'i-shui* (one "curve" river)
一钩新月 *i kou hsin-yueh* (one "hook" new moon)

There are times when this shape-notion is carried so far as to apply to abstract things even, as in the following:—

一门亲事 *i men ch'in shi* (one "door" marriage)
一团晦气 *i tuan huei-ch'i* (one "lump" depressed spirit)
一腔热诚 *i chiang jeh-ch'eng* (one "throat" enthusiasm)
一场恶梦 *i ch'ang o meng* (one "scene" bad dream)
一股勇气 *i ku yung-ch'i* (one "bunch" courage)
一道命令 *i tao ming-ling* (one "path" official order)

This way of thinking, however, although not common in English, is not entirely absent in that language. When a chorus girl,* under the fire of the prosecutor's questions in a court trial, cries out in desperation: "Oh, won't you leave me one *shred* of my reputation?!" she is using there a phrase implying a very vivid shape-notion. Notice also the following:—

a *cake* of soap	a *piece* of mutton, hair, paper, luck
a *bar* of soap	a *strip* of land, cloth, paper

*Mary Dugan in the play *The Trial of Mary Dugan.*

a *ball* of cotton yarn	a *ray* of hope
a *sheet* of paper	a *shower* of criticism
a *drop* of water	a *sea* of trouble
a *grain* of sand, rice, justice	an *expanse* of water
a *cloud* of arrows	a *bit* of water, honey, food, paper
an *ear* of corn	a *slice* of bread
a *lump* of sugar	20 *head* of cattle

Compare also the expressions for collective nn. and mass-words, as *a bunch of grapes, a suit of clothing, a jar of honey,* etc. (see § § 5.11, 5.23).

6.60. Expressions of Position.—Position is usually indicated in English by prepp. and advv., as well as by adjj. It should be remembered, however, that the relationship between prepp. and advv. is very close and the distinction between them is often purely arbitrary:—

[*Adj.*] He is *in*.
[*Adv.*] He goes *in.*
[Prep.] He is *in* the house.

There are few prepp. that cannot otherwise serve as adjj. or advv. in identical or similar senses:

Prep.	*Adj.*	*Adv.*
up the river	he is *up*	going *up*
off the coast	mind is *off*	goes *off*
by his side	*by*-path	passes *by*
inside the room	people *inside*	goes *inside*
above your head	man *above*	stay *above*
below him	man *below*	look *below*
under the water	*under*-dog	go *under* (sink)
between them	a layer *between*	came *between*
over the top	meeting is *over*	talk it *over*
about this point	is *about* to	turn *about*

In *up train, man below* (*above*), we may regard the words *up* and *below* as originally advv. used as adjj, like *then* in *the then* (reigning) *king.* We say also "His visits *home* are few and far *between*": the advv. *home* and *between* are here used as adjj. It is important, therefore, that we recognize the close relationship between prepp. and advv. and adjj. of place or position. Study how the words *far, near, with, without, besides, beside, away* are used. Can all of them be used as prepp.?

It is even clearer that all prepositional phrases are used in adj. or adv. functions. These phrases are called "prepositional phrases" as regards their form (beginning with a prep.), and "adj." or "adv. phrases" as regards their function:—

> He came *into the house* (adv. modifying *came*).
> He is *in the house* (adj. modifying *he*).

It is also interesting to note that (*a*) adjj. of position are often used as nn. and that we often have (*b*) a prep. +an adv., or (*c*) an adv.+a prep., or prep.+prep. (=compound prep.), the distinction between adv. and prep. here being, as we have said, arbitrary. *Up to, down in, on to,* e.g., are clearly compound prepp. like *upon, into, unto.*

(*A*)

the *above*
the *next*
the *last*
the *rear*
the *front*
the *east*
the *west*
to the *right*
on the *left*

(*B*)

over here
over there
round here
from above
from on high (=from above)
from abroad
up from slavery

in between them	*on with* it (开始进行)
(*C*)	*away with* the old
down in the room	*on to* the new
jump *on to* the stage	*from within*
get *down from* the car	*from behind* the forest
run *up to* the house	*out from* a place
look *up to* the man	get *on with* a fellow
look *down upon him*	*up to* the present

Notice also such common pairs as the following:—

over and *above*	*here* and *there*
around and *above* us	*round* and *round*
to and *fro*	*on* and *on*
back and *forth*	*in* and *out*
right and *left*	*off* and *on*

All of these are usually used as adv. phrases.

6.61. Peculiar Use of Prepositions.—One of the greatest difficulties for a foreign student of English is the use of proper prepositions. This is so because, perhaps more than any other class of words, the use of prepositions depends on usage alone. This usage varies from word to word, and from language to language. It is quite clear that we should say "The ship floats *on* water," but it is not so clear why we should say "The house is *on* fire," and not "*in* fire." Usage alone determines this, and usage varies in the different languages. We say "in bed" in English, but *tsai ch'uang shang* ("on bed") in Chinese.

In English, vbb. and adjj. often require definite prepp. in particular senses. These prepp. combine with their pre-

ceding vbb. or adjj. to form phrases with a definite meaning. Thus to "wait for" means to await, whereas to "wait on" means to serve or attend upon a person. The use of prepp. after vbb. and adjj., therefore, must be closely observed, and this is always indicated in a good dictionary. Study, for example, the following phrases, and notice the change of meaning and the entirely arbitary nature in the use of prepp.

on the train
get *on* the horse
house is *on* fire 着火
dog is *on* the chain
march *on* London 攻
draw a knife *on* me
turn back *on* a person 拒
look *on* a game 旁观
look *at* a thing 看
look *upon* something 视
look *into* a matter 勘查
look *up to* a person 景仰

look *down upon* person 卑视
look *over* the manuscript 阅
look *about* 环顾
look *forward to* 期望
look *back upon* 回顾，追忆
get *at* the meaning
get *up* from bed
get *on with* a friend
get *away from* a place
get *through with* one's work
get *down to* work
get used *to* a thing

The use of *up* and *down* in connexion with travelling is quite like Chinese. We say *up* north, but *down south,* and use *up* in general for going to a higher place, or capital, or university, and *down* for the opposite. The word *around* is gradually disappearing in British usage, and is being substituted by *round.* While Americans would say *turn around, go around to the post, the church around the corner, loaf around a place,* such expressions are already impossibilities for an Englishman. He would say *round here, round the corner, seated round the table, stationed round the field.*

Notions of concrete position naturally shade off into those of abstract relationships. For prepp. expressing relationships (*angry with* a *person, at* a *thing*), see Chap. XV.

CHAPTER VII

REPRESENTATION

7.10. Representation.—When we say "John speaks to John's mother, but John's mother does not hear John," everybody feels that the statement is unnecessarily long and awkward. Usually we say "John speaks to *his* mother, but *she* does not hear *him*." The words *his, she* and *him* represent, or take the place of, *John's, John's mother* and *John*. Hence it is often said that pronn. are words which take the place of nn. This is quite true, but it should be remembered that, like all other definitions, this definition should not be taken too seriously. The word *mother* in *John's mother* can be said to take the place of, or represent, *Mrs. X*, and yet it is not considered a pron., but a n.

What is more important for the student of grammar to remember is that here we are dealing with a general problem of representation. We use *she* to represent *Mrs. X*, because there is a need for economy in speech. There are various reasons for using representation: for economy, variation, expressiveness, and for social reasons. But this is not confined to pronn. When we say "He forgot to take the cover off, although I told him to" (for "to take the cover off"), we are purposely avoiding repetition and aiming at economy just as in using the pron. *she* for *Mrs. X*.

On the other hand, when we purposely avoid saying "*I* believe and use "*we* believe" or "*the present writer* believes"

instead, we do not achieve economy, but are satisfying a need for modesty. When a Chinese mother refers to her husband not by mentioning his name, but as "So-and-so's father" or as the very ambiguous "he," she is also using a form of representation out of shyness. Finally, when a newspaper editor writes "A certain general is reported to have sent a large consignment of a certain commodity to Shanghai," instead of writing more bluntly "General Y—— has sent a consignment of opium," he is using representation to avoid going into gaol.

The pronn. are, of course, the most important class of words used for representation. In this chapter, we shall study not only the forms of pronn. but also the purposes for which representation is used. We shall also study various means of representation besides the pronn., such as the use of metaphors, indirect statements and representation by omission.

Personal Pronouns

7.20. Personal Pronouns: Case and Person.—When we speak of pronn., we always think of the words *I, you, he, she, it, we, they*. These are called "personal pronouns" and they form the most important class. There are also impersonal and other pronn. which we shall study later. All these personal pronn. except *it*, refer to persons, and the words *who* may also be included here.

These pronn. are said to belong to three persons and three cases. In the following tables, the old or archaic forms are put in brackets.

	Singular	*Plural*
First Person	I	we
Second Person	you (thou)	you
Third Person	he, she, it	they

The words *I, you, he,* etc. used as subjects of vbb. are said to be in the "nominative case"; the words *my, your, his,* etc. are said to be in the "possessive case"; and the words *me, you, him,* etc. used as objects of vbb. (*see me*) or of prepp. (*for me*) are said to be in the "objective case."

Nominative	I	thou)	he	she	it	we	you	they	who
Possessive	my	(thy)	his	her	its	our	your	their	whose
Objective	me	(thee)	him	her	it	us	you	them	whom

The peculiar thing about the pronn. in the objective case is that they are usually unaccented and are joined to the preceding vbb. or prepp. in pronunciation as if they were syllables of the same word. Thus—

Don't *believe it* [bi'li:vit].
Don't *tell them* ['telðəm, 'teləm].
I can't *see him* ['si:him, 'si:im, 'si:m].
Was glad to *meet her* ['mi:tə] (pr. just like *meter*).
No use *denying it* [di'naiiŋit).
in it ['init], *above it* [ə'bʌvit].
once *upoh a* time ['wʌnsəpɔnə'taim].
at home [ət'houm, or: ə'toum], *at it* [ətit, or: 'ætit].
to him ['tu(:)im], *to me* ['tu:mi:].
for us ['fɔrʌs, 'fɔrəs; or: 'fɔ:-].

Chinese students usually say "tell *them,*" "see *him*"—which is all wrong. Only when these words are emphasized do we accent them, as "for *me,* not for *you.*"

7.21. Mine, Thine, etc.—Study the following:—

This is *my* book.	It is *mine.*
This is *her* ring.	The ring is *hers.*
You bring *your* book.	They will bring *theirs.*
It is *my* pleasure.	The pleasure is *mine.*
It is *your* fault.	The fault is *yours.*

Notice when the nn. used after *my, thy,* etc. are understood, we change the pronn. into *mine, thine,* etc. Thus we have the following series, with the exception of *its.*

my——mine	our——ours
thy——thine	your——yours
his——his	their——theirs
her——hers	whose——whose

A very peculiar use is seen in the following:—

Our friend.	*A* friend *of ours.*
My pen.	*This* pen *of mine.*
Their relative.	*A* relative *of theirs.*
Jimmy's (his) brother.	*A* brother *of Jimmy's* (*his*).
Your boy-husband.	*That* boy-husband *of yours.*
Your filial son.	*That* filial son *of yours.*
Her uncle's book.	*That* book of *her uncle's.*

There is always a tinge of familiarity implied in such expressions. Notice that we cannot say *that your son* or *this my pen,* but must say *that son of yours* or *this pen of mine* (cf. § 8.30).

Exercise 45. Put in the words *mine, thine,* etc. and omit the nn. wherever you can in the following sentences 1–5, and use *a⋯of*

yours, that...of mine, etc. in the sentences 6–10.

1. I will give you my book and you will give me your book.
2. My mother is older than her mother.
3. He forgot to bring his dictionary. I have not forgot my dictionary.
4. It is both your fault and his fault.
5. Here is a handkerchief. Whose handkerchief is it?
6. That son you have is up for mischief.
7. He is my father's darling friend.
8. That is his pet notion.
9. That is one of my bad habits.
10. It has been my fond dream to visit Europe.

7.22. Influence of Modesty, Respect, Familiarity, etc.— As we have said already, pronn. are used for different purposes of representation. Pronn. are changed also, therefore, when the purpose is changed.

Out of **modesty,** real or assumed, we often try to avoid using too many "I's," especially in writing, and substitute for them the vaguer "we," as in *we believe, we have often seen, if we are to believe his words, if we are not mistaken.* This is so especially in writing. Sometimes *the present writer* is used instead, as in *It has come to the present writer's knowledge,* etc. for "my knowledge." In official signed statements, *the undersigned* (sing. or pl.) is often used with vbb. in the third person (*The undersigned is,* or *are, of the opinion,* etc.). Compare Chinese 鄙人，愚，愚见，etc. instead of 我，吾意. This, of course, is always formal and may seem at times affected and unnatural. Compare also the "modest" use of *one* (§ 7.24, "c").

On the other hand, **respect** or **deference** to a superior or stranger often compels us to avoid the direct "you." Compare

Chinese 杨先生，焕章先生，尊意 and the Pekingese 您 instead of 你，汝意. The English *you* can be used in addressing superiors and strangers quite generally, where Chinese would avoid it by saying "Mr. Yang,' "Miss Chen" (杨先生，陈女士，焕章先生), etc.

Study also the following expressions:—

I object, *your Honour* (to judge).

Your Majesty (to king, queen, emperor). Also in the third person *His Majesty the King, Her Majesty the Queen, Their Majesties the King & Queen,* whence H. B. M. (His or Her Britannic Majesty), H. M. S. (His Majesty's ship).

Your (*His, Her*) *Royal Highness* (to princes, etc.).

Your Excellency (to ambassadors, governors & their wives). Hence "the late H. E. Wu Ting-fang." It is *His Excellency's* desire, etc.

Received an order from *yourself,* or *your good self* (only in commercial letters).

Familiarty, on the other hand, causes us to use the plain, natural "I" and the blunt "you," and it is good for a man to be able to speak and write naturally. In the "familiar style" of essays and in personal letters, we write as if we are speaking to intimate friends in our unbuttoned moods, and this way of writing has a charm of its own. That is also why the humorists usually use the plain *I* and *you* (*I believe, I met, I know, I doubt, I can't understand, you know jolly well, you will never understand, not if you die in the attempt,* etc.)

Then there are various other factors, social or psychological. A modern Chinese young lady sometimes refers to her father as "papa" even when speaking to people not

her relatives, perhaps out of a desire to appear dainty. In all households with children, the terms "mother," "mammy," "daddy," "uncle," "auntie" invariably supplant other ways of reference, so that the husband would often refer to his wife as "mother" (*How is mother?/Where's daddy?*). Study also the following:—

Damn it, *kid,* I love you! (among sweethearts)
But, *my dear sir,* this is not so simple (sarcastic, familiar). Also, in the same sense: *my good sir, my dear fellow, my good man, my good woman* (cf. 老兄啊).
How is my *baby?* (to sweethearts and wives)
Don't let the *old man* know (referring to father or husband).
What does *your old man* (*woman*) say? (husband or wife)
But *yours truly* will not be there (slang for *I*).
What can *a fellow* do? (for *What can I do?*)
Ask my *Mrs.* She knows all about it. How is your *Mrs.?* (common familiar term for *wife*).

It is quite all right in English to speak of "my wife," "my husband" as a common term of reference.

Special mention should be made of the **royal we** and the **editorial we.** The first is used by kings and queens in proclamations and official statements ("It has *our* approval," "*We* feel better today"). The second is used by the newspaper editor in his leaders ("*We* do not think it fit to publish the said letters"). In both cases it is based on the idea of collective responsibility.

7.23. Reflexive and Reciprocal Pronouns.—Besides the regular pronn., there are the self-pronn. in English:—

myself ....ourself, ourselves
thyself ....yourself, yourselves

himself }
herself } ....themselves
itself }
oneself, *or* one's self

Ourself (singular) is seldom used except in connexion with the "royal we" (§ 7.22). *Yourself* is the sing. of *yourselves*.. In general, these self-pronn. have two uses, one to show reflexive or reflected action, and the other to show emphasis. Examples of reflexive action are:—

He killed *himself.*
Understand *yourself.*
Protect *yourself.*
Amused *oneself* with *novels.*
Deceive *oneself.*
Believed *himself* to be a genius
Got *themselves* into trouble.
Made *oneself* a nuisance.
Dragged *himself* from bed.
Don't starve *yourself.*
If you do, you have only *yourself* to blame.
Gave *herself* a holiday.
Give *oneself* airs.
Rest *yourself.*
System lends *itself* to abuse.
Magazine pays for *itself.*
Tomorrow will take care of *itself.*

Examples of the use for emphasis are:—

She *herself* said it.
You *yourself* did it.
I *myself* saw it.
I saw it *myself.*
Ask the lady *herself.*
Tell him *yourself.*
You *yourself* told me.
They *themselves* are to blame.
Even the king *himself* didn't know.
We *ourselves* would do the same on like occasions.

In the above examples, the self-pronn. are used to reinforce the meaning of the preceding pronn. and are used in apposition to them. It is possible to use them alone without preceding pronn:—

Ask *herself.*
It was *myself.*
My wife is the same age as *myself.*

What *ourselves* would do is none of your business.
Ourselves are to blame.

But it would not be very nice to say *Myself saw it, Himself went there.* There are also such uses as *for themselves, (the thing) in itself, (They sat) by themselves,* and *your own self.*

There are two compound pronn. *each other* and *one another,* which indicate **reciprocal** action. Examples of their use are:—

Do you know *each other?*	Copy sentences for *each other.*
Ask *each other* questions.	Tear *each other's* hair.
Change dresses with *one another.*	Look into *each other's* face.
Tell *one another* stories.	*Each* looks into *the other's face*
Share *one another's* money.	They hate *each other.*
Share money with *one another.*	*Each* hates *the other.*

Each other and *one another* are now used in the same way. The distinction between *each other* for two persons and *one another* for more than two is neither necessary, nor useful, nor historically sound.

Exercise 46. (1) Make some sentences using the self-pronn. in the emphatic sense (*I myself, you yourself,* etc.).

(2) Make some sentences showing reciprocal action, with vbb. like *help, fight, cheat, dislike, quarrel, make peace with, trade with, salute, suspect, trust, recognize, know, despise,* etc. Also the material in the above examples may be freely drawn upon.

7.24. General Person: "One," "People," etc.—We often say "one may think," "people may think" with reference to a vague general person or society in general. This is really neither in the first, nor in the second, nor in the third

person, because it really includes all three. There are various ways of expressing this abstract general person in English. Study this:—

{ *People* may think you crazy.
{ *They* may think you crazy.
{ *One* may think you crazy.

To hear you talk like that, *one* would think you are crazy.

On looking over the statement carefully, *one* is tempted to think that you are paid to sing praises of the Board.

One will have to be more careful in speech, if *one* values *one's* life.

You will have to be more careful in speech, if *you* value *your* lives.

We shall have to be more careful in speech, if *we* value *our* lives.

We and *you* here are really used to denote general person. In this sense, *you* is used only in a very familiar style.

The use of *one* requires special attention. Two meanings may be distinguished here:—

(a) *One* hates *his* enemies and another forgives them.
(b) *One* hates *one's* enemies and loves *one's* friends.

In the first example, *one* is really the short form for *one man.* In the second example, it denotes general person and means the same thing as *people.* In this second sense, it is better to use *one's, oneself, one* in the rest of the sentence instead of *his, himself, he, him* ("*One* knows *one's,* not *his,* own weakness"), although in America and with some British writers, the use of *he, his* after *one* is quite common. There is a third use for *one,* and that is as a "modest" substitute for *I*:—

(c) After reading this, *one* gets a confused feeling about the

whole affair (= *I* get, etc.)
On inquiring further, *one* was told, etc. (=*I* was told, etc.)

The mixture of *one, I, we, you, people* for the same person in the same sentence is in any case bad English.

Exercise 47. (I) Find out in the following whether the *one* used denotes a general person or some particular one person or thing, or is really a substitute for *I*:—

1. I saw *one* on the floor and picked *it* up.
2. *One* came in and was followed by another.
3. *One* cannot always spend money on others: *he* (preferably *one*) must also plan for *his* (preferably *one's*) own future.
4. He spoke so eloquently that *one* was inclined to believe him.
5. He asked me for help. Could *one* refuse in such circumstances?

(II) Correct the following mixed use of *one, I, we, you, people*:—

6. The use of "one" is rather new to *you*, so *one* has to be careful.
7. If *one* looks into the minutes of the meeting, *you* will be surprised how much time was wasted in useless discussion.
8. *We* would have gone on infinitely, had *one* had time to do so.
9. *One* must be patient, if *we* want to succeed.
10. *People* always criticize the older generation, and when *they* grow old, *you* do the same.

Conflict of Person and Case

7.30. Conflict of Person.—We have seen already in § 5.40 that sometimes there is a conflict in number. Sometimes there can be also a highly inconvenient conflict in person, or in both person and number. Thus, (1) shall we say "He or I *am* (*is?*) to blame," "Neither I nor you *are* (*am?*)

allowed to speak"? Here grammarians cannot agree on any single rule, and the fact is, there is no rule in usage. One way is to follow the force of attraction, i.e., follow the nearest pron., thus: "He or I *am* to blame" but "I or he *is* to blame," and "*Are* you or I next?" but "*Am* I or you next?" A better way is to avoid such constructions by saying "He or I *should* be blamed," or "*Either he is* to blame, *or I am* to blame." This second way is always possible in writing, and is to be recommended.

(2) When there is a conflict of number, and when one of the subjects is plural, or when two subjects form a plural number, then use the plural vb.

> Either he or **his brothers** *fail* in *their* duty.
> **You and I** *are* out of danger now.
> **I and he** *were* on the same train.
> I hear **you and he** *are* cousins.

(3) There is another source of trouble from such constructions as *some of us, some of you,* etc. Here commonsense may be trusted to decide on the right word to use. Study the following:—

> Some of us think *they* (not *we*) can fight without my leadership. (Not including the speaker.)
> Some of us think *we* (not *they*) can conquer by passive resistance. (Including the speaker.)
> Some of you believe *they* can make more money that way.
> Most of us lost *our* heads (if including speaker), or Most of us lost *their* heads (if the speaker thinks he is an exception).

(4) But our troubles do no end here. We have the relative pron. *who*. *Who* always agrees with its related preceding word ("antecedent") in person and number. Study

the following:—

Don't choose **me,** *who am* already burdened with too much work.

It is not **you** *who are* in trouble, it is **I** *who am* in trouble.

I am not **one** *who is* (not *am*) afraid of criticism.

I am not **one** *who cares.*

You are the **one** *who was* (not *were*) elected.

Exercise 48. (I) Make sentences with the phrases:—

1. I who am	5. He who has
2. Yoy who are	6. They who have
3. He who is	7. He who knows
4. We who are	8. We who know

(II) Decide which word should be used in the following:—

1. It is not he who *have* (*has?*) cheated you. It is you who *have* (*has?*) cheated him.
2. You are the man who *break* (*breaks?*) his promise.
3. Are you he who *were* (*was?*) here some time ago?
4. Either he or you is (*are?*) wrong. (change in any way you like.)
5. I hear you and he *are* (*is?*) good friends.
6. You who...so strong——you ought to be ashamed of yourself beating him who...a mere child.

7.31. Conflict of Case: "Who" and "Whom."—Here are three types of cases to be discussed: (a) the *it-is-I* type, (b) the use of *who* and *whom,* and (c) the use of *whoever, whomever.*

(1) In "It *is* I," "It *is* he," the pron. *I* and *he* are not the objects of *is* in meaning. Hence the use of the nominative case. So also—

It was not *I.*

Then *who* (not *whom*) is it?

If anybody is to be punished, it should be *he* (not *him*).

Is this *she* (not *her*) whom I am going to marry?

(2) **Who:whom.** The use of the relative pron. *who* or *whom* has nothing to do with its antecedent, but depends entirely on its relation inside the *who*-clause (marked off in parentheses).

He deserted me (*who* gave him his chance in life). [Subj. of *gave*]
His mother is the person (*whom* he loves him best). [She loves him best]
His mother is the person (*whom* he loves best). [He loves her best]
Don't argue with me (*who* am trying to help you). [Subj. of *am*]

We have to use different words when the cases are different, as in the following:—

His name is Alfonso, *who* is their king *and whom* they are trying to overthrow.
Hackett was her husband, *who* often maltreated her, *and whom* she hated like poison.

Sometimes this is confused by the introduction of an independent clause, like *I think, they suppose,* but the rule remains unchanged. Compare the following:—

Then came Mr. Dobson, *who* (not *whom*) **we knew** was a grocer. **We knew** *he* (not *him*) was a grocer.
Then came Mr. Dobson, *whom* **they knew** to be a grocer. **They knew** *him* to be a grocer.
He met the girl *whom* **he recognized** to be his childhood friend. **He recognized** *her* (not *she*) to be his childhood friend.
News came from Captain Johnson, *who,* **they had thought,** was dead. *He,* **they had thought,** was dead.
News came from Captain Johnson, *whom* **they had regarded** as dead. **They had regarded** *him* as dead.

Notice also the following:—

I don't know (*who* did it).
We will decide (*who* is to go first).

The whole *who*-clauses are the objects of *know* and *decide*, and therefore we do not say *whom*. Again, the use of *who* or *whom* depends on the relation inside the clause.

(3) **Whoever: whomever.** Like *who* and *whom*, the use of *whoever* or *whomever* also depends on its relation inside the clause entirely. "Whoever" simply means "any person who" and "whomever" means "any person whom"

Whoever says so is a liar or a knave. (Any person *who* says so, etc.)
Whoever comes is welcome. (Any one *who* comes, etc.)
Whomever they met was asked to contribute a few dollars. (Any person *whom* they met, etc.)
I will marry *whoever* comes first my way. (I will marry any one *who* comes, etc.)
They stopped *whomsoever* they saw. (They stopped any person *whom* they saw.)
For *whomever* he met he had a nod. (For any one *whom* he met. etc.)
For *whoever* met him he had a nod. (For any one *who* met him. etc.)

Thus our general conclusion is as follows:—

Person and Number		*Case*
Agrees with what goes before: *I who am, you who are,* etc.	WHO	Is determined by what follows: *who knows, whom they know,* etc.

Exercise 49. Decide whether *who* or *whom* should be used in the following, and show why:—

1. The question regarding *who(m)* was to blame for the Great War is not so simple as the ignorant people imagine.
2. She kept the secret from him *who(m)* ought to know everything.
3. It was not he *who(m)* she was afraid of, but his lawyer.
4. It was not he *who(m)* was afraid of her, but she *who(m)* was afraid of him.
5. You need not be afraid of him *who(m)* you know is a perfect gentleman.
6. She was the girl *who(m)* I met yesterday.
7. He is a man *who(m)* they detest.
8. To those *who(m)* have, more shall be given.
9. He likes those *who(m)* flatter him and hates those with *who(m)* he does not agree.
10. He likes those *who(m)* agree with him.

Thing-Pronouns

7.40. Thing-Pronouns.—So far we have been dealing with personal pronn. There are, however, pronn. for things, as well as pronn. for persons. Following are the common pronn. for things in English:—

all	none	that	these	such
some	most	this	one	former (前者)
any	what	those	which	latter (后者)

For lack of a better term, we may call these "impersonal pronouns" or "thing-pronouns." It should be remembered, however, that most of these thing-pronn. can refer to both persons and things, and that, on the other hand, the "personal pron." *it* does not usually refer to persons. The important point is that representation of thing-words is expressed by means of these pronn.

It can be easily seen that almost all these words are originally adjj: from *I like those apples* to *I like those.* Study the following:—

ADJECTIVES	PRONOUNS
Which boy?	*Which* is *which?*
Which way?	Don't know *which.*
Any new student	Haven't seen *any.*
All things	Don't take *all.*
Some food	Please take *some.*
What thing?	*What* is it?

It will be noticed also that, with the exception of *this, that* (pl. *these, those*) and *one* (pl. *ones*), all these words can be either in the singular or in the plural.

None *is*, or *are*, there.
There *is*, or *are*, **none** left.
What *is* the reason? **What** *are* the reasons?
A thing **that** *makes* you sick. Things **that** *make* you sick.
All *is* lost. **All** *are* found.
Some of it *is*, **some** of them *are*, rotten. (Cf. §5.41 "e")

7.41. Some, Any, None.—*Some* is used in questions and affirmative statements. *Any* is used in questions and negative statements.

Do you have *some?*	Do you have *any?*
I have *some.*	I haven't *any.* I have *none.*
Can *some* (one) tell me?	Can *any* (*one*) tell me?
Some can tell me.	*None* can tell me.

Exercise 50. Fill the blanks with the proper words (*some, any, none*):—

1. There are.........	3. May I have.........?
2. Are there.........?	4. I don't want.........

5. Give him.........
6. Don't give him.........
7. You haven't seen all, but you have seen.........
8. No, I haven't seen.........
9. Haven't you seen.........?

7.42. What.—*What* (= *that which*) is a very useful word expressing the idea represented by the Chinese *so* (所). *What he knows is this* = 他所知道是这样. See if you can use the following phrases in sentences:—

what one knows	what is useful, useless
what one can see	what is true, false
what I am afraid of	what he said
what you do in a day	what you heard
what the government wants	what they saw
what you pay for	what frightens him
what makes me hate him	what woman wants
what everybody knows	what to say, think, do

As *what* means *that which* and already contains the antecedent in itself, we cannot say *all what*, but should say *all that*. *But what* is chiefly colloquial: in literary use, generally *but that* is used.

That is *all* he knows, or That is *all that* he knows (not *all what* he knows).
All one can do is to wait, or *All that* one can do (not *all what* one can do) is to wait.
Who knows *but that* (*but what*) he may have purposely told you a lie?
Who can *tell but that* (*but what*) he may be the most important man in the country three months hence?

7.43. One, Thing, Affair, Something, etc.—The use of *one* representing persons has already been discussed in the above (§ 7.24). *Thing* and *affair* are not usually considered as

pronn., but the fact remains that these words are most commonly used in English to represent almost any kind of things. Study the following:—

Such a nice *one* (referring to a dress, hat, Christmas tree, apple, etc.).

Give him a good *one* (punch him hard, pitch a baseball).

That's a good *one* (a good joke, retort, etc.).

A short life and a merry *one.*

Select the best *ones.* Throw away the bad *ones.*

He started the next revolution, if it may be called *one.*

Stay at any *one* of the dozen families you know in town.

The ones (photographs) you saw.

Open the drawer on the left, the *one* with a key in it.

He writes many poems, but publishes only the *ones* he likes.

The top *one.* The lower *one.* Little *ones.* A new *one.* Two old *ones.* Such a *one.*

(For persons) The lucky *ones.* The young *ones. One* so fair and beautiful. Like *one* weary of life. Like *one* in a dream. Like *one* risen from the grave. Offending *one* so powerful. Marry *one* worthy of you. *One* who talks. *One* who dares.

I don't know a *thing* about it.

I don't understand *the whole thing.*

The *thing,* or *affair* (perhaps a performance, a party, a dinner, a match, or a wedding), was a complete failure.

That's the *thing* (the thing we want, the right thing to give or to do, etc.).

Things (or *Affairs*) are better now (general conditions are better).

Take off your *things* (outdoor clothes, hat, etc.).

The great *thing* is to make a right start.

Blue socks are now *the thing* (the fashion).

(Referring to persons) *That thing* Jones. She, *poor thing,* never heard of it. A dear, old *thing* (man, woman or animal).

What is the latest *thing* (news)?

His death is a good *thing*.
I haven't a *thing* to say.
Something new.
Something useful.
Something easy.
Nothing strange.
Nothing new.
Nothing difficult.
Anything sweet.
Anything above five feet.
Anything you want.
Anything you say.
Anything you ask.
Anything I do.
Something to do.
Something to live for.
Something to read.
Something to think about.
Nothing to see.
Anything to eat.

Exercise 51. Make sentences with the words and phrases *one, the one, like one, a thing, the thing, things, something, nothing, anything,* etc., using the above examples as models.

7.44. That.—Like the words *thing* and *affair,* the word *that* is often used to represent a fact, a statement, a general situation, or something we have vaguely in mind.

That is the trouble. (Something we have just mentioned is the trouble.)
When was *that?* (When did the thing happen?)
That was long ago. (An old event or situation.)
Oh, is *that* what you mean? (Is what you have just said your real meaning?)
Who was *that*? (Who was the person at the door?)
So *that* is *that.* (A common formula for closing one point of a discussion.)
Now, *that's* a good boy. (Form of coaxing children =乖乖的.)
I know *all that*. *All that* is a waste of your time. *All that* is mere propaganda.

Of special interest is the use illustrated below:—

You had better break his friendship, and *that* (=break it) at once.
We have to pay him a monthly bribe, and *that* (=pay the bribe)

always promptly and in full.

Much more common and important is the following use:—

The climate here is like *that* (=the climate) of France (not *like France*).

He has a head like *that* (=the head) of an ox, and eyes like *those* of a field mouse.

Her wedding took place at the same time with *that* (=the wedding) of her sister.

Exercise 52. Correct or improve the following sentences:—

1. His voice sounds like his brother.
2. Her name resembles her aunt.
3. This has a smell like banana.
4. Her handwriting is neat and small, while Po-liang is big and slovenly.
5. We usually value our own money, and think little of other people's money.
6. We usually like our own composition and fail to appreciate others.

7.45. It.—The word *it* also often stands for a vague something. What *it* stands for is vague enough, when used as the subject of impersonal vbb., but still vaguer, when used as an object.

AS VAGUE SUBJECT

It rains. *It* is cold. *It* was hot.
It is winter. *It* was getting dark.
It is six miles to Oxford.
It is too late now.
It says, 'Keep to the left.'
It says in the Bible that all men are liars.

AS VAGUER OBJECT

You must fight *it* out (make no compromise).
The deuce take *it!* (a form of cursing).
Won't stand *it* any longer (stand the treatment, etc.).
Give *it* him hot (strike him hard).
Now you have done *it* (you have spoiled the thing, or committed the mistake to avoid).
Shall we walk *it* or cab *it* (take a carriage)?
You can't get away with *it* (you will be punished for this).
He hasn't got *it* in him (the required talent).

AS COMPLEMENT MODIFIER

Yes, that's *it* (just what I mean, or just the truth).
For barefaced lying, you are really *it* (here with special meaning—the limit, the ideal).
In a lilac sun-bonnet, she was *it* (=the ideal woman in ideal dress we all have been dreaming about).

It, moreover, has a very important function in the English language, (a) by helping to dispose of the vb. of a long subject first, and (b) by helping to transpose the logically important word to the first part of the sentence.

AS APPOSITIVE SUBSTITUTE OF LOGICAL SUBJECT

It is a nuisance, *this delay.*	*This delay* is a nuisance.
It is quite true, *all that you say.*	*All that you say* is quite true.
It is true *that he died*	*That he died* is true.
It is a pity *that you didn't see it.*	*That you didn't see it* is a pity.

AS ANTECEDENT OF "THAT"

I don't like the colour.	*It is* the colour *that* I don't like.
The noise frightened him.	*It was* the noise *that* frightened him.
I didn't object.	*It was* he *that* raised the objec-

	tion.
We didn't start the fight.	*It was* the Japanese *that* started the fighting.
You don't buy a fountain-pen for its looks.	*It is* service *that* you want.
What the patient needs is better food and more sunshine.	*It is* better food and more sunshine *that* the patient needs.
What he is after now is fame.	*It is* fame *that* he is after now.

Here the combination *it...that* is really equal to *what,* with the advantage of disposing of the vb. *is* at the very beginning.

Exerise 53. (I) Turn these long-winded sentences about, and make them neater by using *it* and putting the vb. immediately after it.

1. That you know the accent of every new English word is important.
2. To feed, clothe and educate the children and keep them clean, to see that the food is always healthy and nourishing, the floor and windows are kept clean, and the carpet is properly beaten, to direct and supervise the servants and prevent their quarrelling, and at the same time to look beautiful and cheerful to one's husband—all this is no easy task for a mother.
3. That you know thoroughly what you have learnt before proceeding to learn something else is advisable.
4. To learn so many subjects at the same time is a little too much for the child.

(II) Transpose the logically important element of the sentence to the first part by using *it*:—

1. What annoys me is *the constant repetition.*
2. He is not marrying her for love. He is after *her money.*
3. The thing that impressed people most was *Gandhi's mental calm.*

4. What makes me angry is not the content but *the tone* of the letter.
5. What annoyed me was *that constant monkeyiny with her lips with a lip-stick.*

(III) Make sentences with the following phrases:—

1. It is true that.........
2. It is natural that.........
3. It would be unfair to...........
4. It is not right that.........
5. It is impossible for.........to.........
6. It is not enough that you.........
7. It is more important that you.........
8. It is well-known that.........

Metaphors

7.50. Metaphors and Figurative Expressions. Every language has its metaphors or figurative expressions and English is no exception. Metaphors have one great value in a language in maintaining the balance of concrete imagery in it and preventing it from becoming a mere abstract, logical dialect of the scientists and professors. They preserve for it always the smell of the soil, as it were. The English language is considered a virile language just because it is full of metaphors and metaphorical uses of words. In spite of the great increase of scientific vocabulary, real modern English remains racy and fresh because of the many figurative uses of its simple and homely words.

Metaphors, therefore, greatly increase the expressiveness of one's language. Sometimes, metaphors are used for elegant variation, but usually, metaphors are used on their own

merits—the merits of expressiveness. To call a wicked woman a *she-devil* is direct. If a man is talking nonsense, it is easier to shut him up by calling it *perfect rot* than describing it as *nonsensical talk*. When a rich bourgeois merchant died with lots of money, it may be more appropriate to say that *he cut up fat*. The concrete imagery of a fat pig being cut up for the enjoyment of his relatives suggests many things which abstract terminology cannot. To tell the soldiers that they are *cannon-fodder* may have more persuasive force than volumes of prize essays on international peace. (Cf. the imagery in Chinese 俎上鱼肉，釜底游魂，瓮中鳖.) Further examples are:—

A misplaced eyebrow: contemptuously of a small moustache.
A salamander: one who loves to sit by the fire.
A chatterbox: a woman given to chattering.
A dumb bell: (Amer. slang) one who does not understand, a fool.
Take a moral holiday: have a spree or indulge in temporary immorality.
Take rosy-coloured views: be optimistic.
The seamy side of life: the unseen and less beautiful side.
Make sheep's eyes at a lady: cast amorous glances.
An eyesore: person or thing one hates to see, e. g., dirty hut near a mansion, a poor relative, etc.
An eyewash: (slang) humbug, something made to deceive.
A bed of roses: easy and luxurious life.
A crumpled rose-leaf: small irritation in a happy life.
Eat one's cake and still have it: it is impossible to enjoy two things at the same time.
Kill the goose that lays the golden eggs: for immediate benefit at the cost of the future.
Have one's tail between one's legs: show great fear or submission.

Hold the purse-strings: control money.

Such expressions could be multiplied without end.

It will be interesting to see how the simplest words in English, usually concrete in meaning, develop the greatest variety of metaphors. Following are some examples taken from the *Concise Oxford Dictionary:*—

Cat.—

That old cat＝悍妇，泼妇，老狐狸精.
A cat may look at a king＝一视何伤?
Living a cat-and-dog life＝夫妻反目，日夜吵架，鸡犬不宁.
Let the cat out of the bag＝漏泄秘密，走漏风声.
See which way the cat jumps＝取观望态度，看风头.
Cult of the jumping cat＝骑墙主义.
Rains cats and dogs＝大雨倾盆.
Not room to swing a cat＝无立锥之地.

Dog.—

Go to the dogs＝鸡零狗碎，零落，破灭不可收拾.
Throw to the dogs＝唾弃，牺牲.
Every dog has his day＝瓦片也有翻身时.
Haven't a dog's chance＝极少希望.
Lead a dog's life＝过穷苦生活，苟延残喘.
Give a dog a bad name and hang him＝欲加之罪，何患无词?
You lucky dog!＝好造化!好狗命!
Love me, love my dog＝打狗看主面，爱屋及乌.
Let sleeping dogs lie＝一动不如一静，勿无事生非.
Dog in the manger＝狗占马槽(于自己无用者，且不肯让人).

Dust.—

Throw dust in one's eyes＝欲图蒙蔽.

Shake off the dust of one's feet＝拂袖而去(不怿).
Bite the dust＝战败倒毙.
In the dust＝归土，入黄泉.
Humbled to the dust＝大受挫辱，辱在泥涂.
Raise a dust＝扬尘;引申为'引起纠纷.'
Dust and heat＝风尘劳顿，汗马之劳.

Finger.—

Done by the finger of God＝由于天意，由于神力.
Lay one's finger on＝指出(病原等);随意拾得.
Look through one's fingers at＝佯为不见.
Won't stir a finger＝不拔一毛.
Turn *or* twist a person round one's finger *or* little finger＝任意播弄，玩之股掌之上.
My fingers itch to＝手痒，技痒，渴想.
His fingers are all thumbs＝用手笨拙.
With a wet finger＝容易，不费吹灰之力，易如反掌.
Burn one's finger＝自做孽，好管闲事，招惹是非.
Have a finger in the pie＝与闻，染指.
Let slip through one's fingers＝不觉放弃，轻轻放过.
Have a subject at one's finger-tips＝娴熟，拿手好戏.
To the finger-nails＝浑身，自顶至踵，一身(都是胆).

To write a good, idiomatic English style, one should pay attention to such uses of the simple words. Chinese students of English are usually at home in the use of long words of Latin origin; a college dean, for instance, says of his new curriculum that "it *epitomizes* the *processes* of *modernization* of China." He might have said that "it shows the modern changing China in a miniature," or "it sums up in a nutshell, as it were, the various phases of changing China." Few Chinese students are truly at home in the idiomatic use of simple English words. The secret of a good English style lies in mixing up the homely words with more high-brow ones,

as Edward Sapir* has done when he speaks of "grammatical *pattern*" (for *type of structure*) and "the *drift* of language" (for *tendency of language*). Instead of saying, "Mr. MacDonald began to *deal with the problem directly,*" it would be an actual improvement in expressiveness to say that "he *came to close grips with* the problem." Instead of saying, "Mr. Lloyd George's efforts at pleasing some Conservatives," one might speak of "Mr. Lloyd George's *flirtations* with them" (cf. Chinese 吊膀子). And instead of saying, "He tries to locate the economic distress," one could say, "He tries to find out *where the shoe pinches,*" and it would be better English.

Indirect Statements

7.60. Direct and Indirect Statements.—Very often we want to quote or restate what another says. We have a direct quotation, with a capital and quotation marks in the following:—

> Mr. Barker said to his son, "I am going away from the city for a few days, and you should come home to see your mother everyday."

This can be made into an indirect statement as follows:—

> Mr. Barker said to his son *that he was* going away from the city for a few days *and that he, the son,* should come home everyday to see *his* mother.

This is also a case of representation and the indirect statement may also be called a "represented statement."

In direct quotations, we must use the exact words and

* Author of *Language* (Harcourt, Brace, N. Y.)

consider the quotation marks as sacred. If words are omitted, we should indicate the omission by a dotted line.

In indirect statements, we do not bind ourselves to use the exact words, and naturally change the person of pronn. and the tense of vbb. according to the actual meaning.

Indirect questions have already been discussed in § 3.64. In indirect questions, we do not use the "inverted order" of vb. and subject:—

Peterson asked: "*Are you* coming?" (Direct)
Peterson asked if *he was* coming. (Indirect)

While indirect statements are introduced by *that,* indirect questions are introduced by *if, whether, how, when, what,* etc. so that we get the following phrases:—

ask if	ask why
ask whether	ask when
ask how	ask where
ask what	ask for what reason
ask who	ask by what means, etc.

Look up § 3.64. again for review.

In **indirect commands and requests,** the vbb. are usually expressed with the helping words *should, would, are to, were to,* etc. When the vb. alone is used, the infinitive form is used both for the past and present tenses. For example:—

It *is* our wish that he *leave* the city now.
It *was* our wish that he *leave* the city at once.

We may say:

It was our wish that he *should leave* the city at once,

which means the same thing as *leave.* But to say:

It was our wish that he *left* at once

would imply that he actually *left* (indicative of fact) in accordance with our wish (cf. § 3.74).

Exercise 54. Change the following direct statements, questions and requests or commands into good and clear indirect statements, etc., and notice the changes in pronn. and vbb. that you will have to make. *Had to* may be used for the past tense of *must.*

1. Peterson explained to his mother: "I must go now, for I have to meet a friend."
2. His mother asked: "Why do you have to go in such a hurry? Is your friend more important than your mother? Can you not wait a while, till your sister returns?"
3. Peterson said: "There is no time to wait. Besides, my sister may not come home today at all."
4. His mother replied: "If that is the case, go now. You must always have your own way. But come back early."

7.61. Tense of Dependent Clauses.—In the sentence—

Mr. Barker said that he was going away for a few days.

Mr. Barker said is called the "main clause," and the clause introduced by *that* is called the "dependent clause," because it depends on the main clause in meaning. *As a rule, if the main clause is in past tense, the dependent clause should be in past tense also.* Thus—

Mr. Barker *said* that he *could* come.

Here the speaker is simply repeating the words of Mr. Barker, and assumes no responsibility as to whether he will actually come or not. There are times when we can say:

Mr. Barker *said* that he *can* come.

This would more or less imply that the pressent speaker believes

in him, and is willing to state it as a pressent fact that he *can* come. So also—

Mr. Barker *said* that the earth *was* round.
Mr. Barker *said* that the earth *is* round.

In the first sentence, the present speaker is simply repeating Mr. Barker's words; whether the earth *is* round or not is none of the present speaker's business. (Mr. Barker might have said it to his washerwoman, and we can imaging the washerwoman now quoting it with great respect for Mr. Barker's opinions.) In the second sentence, the speaker is more or less willing to state it as a fact.

Exercise 55. Study the use of verbal tense in the following dependent clauses and find out the reason for its use:—

1. He just *told* me that he *can* come tonight.
2. He *told* me that you *are* bankrupt.
3. He *said* that he *had been* in Singapore for three years before he came here.
4. You go and *tell* him that I *am* a Singapore merchant myself and *had* never *heard* of his name when I *was* there.
5. Mr. Russell *said* in his lecture that prohibition *has* succeeded in making drinking very popular in America today.
6. Mr. Wu *declared* that he, too, *was* a revolutionist.
7. They *asked* him if he *was* a communist, and he said "No."
8. Mr. Wu *denied* that we *have* failed in the revolution; he *said* that our present government *was* better than the Manchu Government.
9. It *was* requested that the murderer *be handed* over to the Chinese authorities.
10. He *was* allowed to stay at home with the condition that

he *report* at the police headquarters every morning.

Representation by Omission

7.70. Representation by Omission.—Grammar should teach one how to omit, as well as how to express, things. As Jespersen has wisely remarked, "Only bores want to express everything, but even bores find it impossible to express everything." Jespersen mentions as example the case of a man purchasing a railway ticket at the station and saying "Two third Brighton return," which really represents, "Would you please sell me two third-class tickets from London to Brighton and back again, and I will pay you the usual fare for such tickets. Economy of speech is usually the motive for representation, whether by use of pronn. or by other means. To say "five feet four" (four inches) and "three seventy-five" (three dollars seventy-five cents) implies as much a form of representation as to say "The book is *mine* or *his*" (my book, his book), or "buy it at the *grocer's*" (grocer's shop), or "She went to her *uncle's*" (uncle's home). Following are some idiomatic omissions:—

Got up at six (*o'clock*) thirty.
In the year nineteen (*hundred*) thirty-seven.
He stands five feet six (*inches*).
It measures four (*feet wide*) by five (*feet long*).
The price is seven (*dollars* and) fifty-five (*cents*).
But what (*am I*) to do (or: say)?
I have heard (*people*) say that...
Live and let (*others*) live.
Help (*to*) make it a success.
I help him (*to get*) over the stile, down the bridge, up the wall, out of a difficulty.

Her stepmother made her (*to*) sweep, scrub and clean.
I feel (*I*) like going out today.
He dare not (*to*) appear.

(1) The avoiding of repetition is one of the common causes for omission or suppression of words. Thus—

The upper (*shelf*) and the lower shelf.
His old (*associates*) and new associates.
Good-bye to the old year and welcome to the new (*year*)!
Cut off the first and last parts of the play, and leave the middle (*part of the play*).
I told you to come at nine o'clock, and you come at eleven (*o'clock*).
He can (*do it*) and will do it.
I can do it, but dare not (*do so*).
He could not do it, and would not (*do it*) if he could (*do it*).
He has inherited and (*has*) spent his fortune.
A new government had been established and (*had been*) overthrown in the course of the three days.
He was jeered, (*was*) hooted, (*was*) made fun of, and (*was*) dragged off from the stage.
I know you and (*I know*) him.
He brought his wife and (*he brought his*) children.
He lost his wife, (*his*) three children and (*his*) property.
His wife is taller than he (*is tall*).
You love her more than (*you love*) me.

In strictly correct English, one should not let one helping vb. represent by omission another which is not exactly the same. We can say "He *had* fought and (*had*) been defeated," but we should not say "He *was* defeated and they (*were*) victorious." Because *were* is different from *was*, it should be expressed and not omitted.

Exercise 56. (I) Repetition is not grammatically wrong, and

is sometimes very expressive, but see if you can avoid the repetition of words, when you want to.

1. He gave him five dollars and gave me only three dollars.
2. This is seven o'clock, and you said it was eight o'clock.
3. We have searched the house and have found nothing.
4. He has come and has gone already.
5. The man was immediately taken to the hospital and was treated by a doctor.
6. You have learnt nothing and have forgotten nothing.
7. In three months' time, he has bought a house, has insured it for $35,000, has burnt it down, and has got the money for it.
8. He has successively married seven women, has divorced six of them and has made a present of the seventh one to General Chang.

(II) Correct the following by changing the tense of vbb. or filling in words where omissions are unjustified:—

1. I came here to sec the city and met a few friends.
2. I intended to go to Tsingtau and spent the summer there.
3. After the storm was over, we found that our house alone was intact, while all the others destroyed.
4. Many men have built the house and one man torn it down.

(2) For psychological reasons, we often omit the beginning or the last part of a sentence, when we consider the part expressed as sufficiently clear. This is true especially in answers to questions. In this sense "Yes" and "No" may stand for almost anything expressed in the question. Also—

How many do you want? (Ans.) *Four.*
Would you have it (the egg) fried or scrumbled? (Ans.) *Fried.*
Would you have it boiled hard or soft? (Ans.) *Soft, or medium.*
Is this quarter past three? (Ans.) *No, ten past.*
Would you have tea or coffee? (Ans.) *Coffee.*
Shall I bring you a pen or a pencil? (Ans.) *Both.*

Do you like it? (Ans.) *Rather!*

In very common expressions, we often omit the first one or two syllabes, out of simple laziness.

(*Good*) Morning!	(*I am*) Present!
(*Will*) That do?	(*He or She is*) Absent!
(*You*) See what I mean?	(*I am*) Sorry.
(*I am*) Here!	Fraid not. (=*I am* afraid not)
(*I*) Thank you!	(*That's*) A good idea!
(*I*) Beg your pardon.	(*Do it*) Gently, please.
(*I hope to*) See you tomorrow.	(*It's*) Well done.
(*Do you*) Remember that letter?	(*Let's*) Have done!
(*Think of*) What people will say!	(*Keep your*) Hands up (or: off)!
(*That's*) Imposible!	(*Be*) Quick!

On the other hand, we may have what Jespersen calls "pull-up sentences," where the last part is left omitted as being unnecessary for the understanding of the complete meaning. The *to* with the vb. omitted is quite common in such endings.

He never came, although I told him to (*come*).
He did not take off the cover, although I had told him to (*do so*).
Come with me, if you care to (*come*).
Would you come?——I should love to (*come*).
We have asked him to pay at the end of this month, and he says he is willing to (*do so*).

Other kinds of quite common pull-up sentences are:—

I told him he was wrong, and he admitted quite as much (*as what I said*).
But Shaw is quite as great an author (*as any we have been discussing*).
He is not nearly so great (*as the other one*).

Chen-teh comes from the same place (*where I come from*).
I don't like to offend one so powerful (*as he*).

Truer types of pull-up sentences are, for example:—

Well, I never (*heard of such a thing*)!
Well, go to (*the thing you want to do, and I will not object*)!
If I only knew about this an hour ago!

It would be bad grammar not to recognize these as complete sentences simply because some of their parts are understood. Such grammar could be a hindrance, instead of a help, to the power of expression.

CHAPTER VIII

DETERMINATION

8.10. Representation, Determination and Modification.—When we say *this book, that book, my book, the book that you took away,* we are using various ways to indicate or "determine" the particular book we mean, and this we call the problem of determination in grammar. Grammatical means of determination always answer the question "Which one?" Further examples are:—

the same book	either this or that book
the other book	each book
some other book	the respective books
every other book	any old book
the second book	whatever book

It will be seen that there is a close relation between determination and representation. The pronn. *he, you, they, myself, themselves* are all representative words, and yet they all help to "determine" which person we mean. "*His* book" also helps to answer the question, "Which book?"

There is also a close relation between determination and modification. We say, for instance, that in *the red book,* the adj. *red* modifies the n. *book.* It describes what kind of a book it is. But the word *red* serves also to limit the meaning of *book* by excluding the green ones, the blue ones, etc. It, therefore, also helps to "determine" the book meant. Generally, the modified nn. have a narrower or

more restricted meaning than unmodified nn. "*Northern* Chinese" are only one part of the Chinese people, and "*humorous* essays" exclude essays that are not humorous. Moreover, determination is only one form of modification: *this*, a determinative word in *this book*, modifies the word *book*. It is only because the determinative words and phrases are both common and important that we study them as a class by themselves.

Thus we may distinguish three functions:—

(1) *Representation:* to take the place of other words (Chap. VII).
(2) *Determination:* to answer the question "Which one?" (Chap. VIII).
(3) *Modification:* to modify or describe the meaning of other words (Chap. IX).

They are three classes of notions that we have to study, but one and the same word may serve two or three different functions at the same time.

8.11. Classes of Pronouns.—In the old grammars, pronn. are classified in the following way:—

(1) **Personal:** *I, you, it* (also possessive forms *my, mine, your, yours,* etc).
(2) **Demonstrative:** *this, that, which* (pointing out which one).
(3) **Relative:** "the man *who* escaped," "the girl *that* he loves," etc. (relating to a preceding word).
(4) **Interrogative:** *who? which? what?* (used for asking questions).

It will be seen that the possessive pronn, *my, your* and the demonstrative pronn. *this, that* chiefly serve the purpose of

determination. The relative pronn. serve as often to determine which one as for other purposes of modification, thus:—

> I know the man *who* escaped from prison. (*Determining which person.*)
> I know this man, *who* is a dirty rascal. (*Describing the person.*)

For convenience' sake, the relative clauses will be studied in the next chapter on Modification.

The above division is useful and convenient as a classification of pronn. Regarded from the point of view of notions, however, these pronn. should be studied together with other classes of words serving the same purpose. Thus, both demonstrative adjj. and demonstrative pronn. serve the purpose of determination, and their distinction is really unimportant:—

ADJECTIVES	PRONOUNS
This book.	I know *this.*
Take *another* one.	Take *another.*
Both men came.	*Both* came.

The relative pronn. and the relative advv. should also be studied together as serving the same purpose of determination or modification:—

RELATIVE PRON.	RELATIVE ADV.
Find out the man *who* said this.	Find out the time *when* he arrived.

Distinction and Apposition

8.20. Distinction: "This," "That," "Same," "Other."— Like *this* and *that*, the words *same* and *other* may be used as adjj. (*the same people, other people*) or as pronn. (*is the*

same, for others). The expressions *the same as* and *the same that* are generally used as in the following examples:—

This is *the same* one *that* you saw yesterday.
This is *the same* one *as* that (*one*).
I eat *the same* food *that* you eat.
My food is *the same as* yours.
You are *the same* age *as* my sister.
Wealth or poverty is *all the same* (or *just the same*) to me. (As adj.)
But I thank you *all the same* (or *just the same*). (As adv.)

It is always best to use *that* when a clause follows (i.e., with a vb. expressed), and use *as* when a simple n. or pron. follows (i.e., when there is no vb. following, or when the vb. is understood).

When there is a vb. with the idea of sharing, we may use *with*, as—

I *live* in the same room *with him*. (=I *share* a room *with* him).

The use of **another, the other** and **others** follows the usage regarding the use or omission of *a* and *the*.

A boy.	*Another* boy.	(Indefinite sing.)
Boys.	*Others.*	(Indefinite pl.)
The boy(s).	*The* other(s).	(Definite sing. or pl.)

Another is simply a compound word formed by *an* and *other*. We may say, also, *some other boy* or *boys, any other boy(s)* and *no other boy(s)* as we say *some boy(s), any boy(s)* and *no boy(s)*. *No other* is followed by *than*, but *different, differ* are followed by *from*, e.g.—

This is *no other* **than** the one we saw yesterday.
It can be *no other* person **than** Mr. Ma himself.

This *is different* **from** the one we saw.

Exercise 57. Study the following and find out why the words *another, the other, others, the others* and the words *as, that, with, than* are used. Then make some sentences with *the same as, the same that, another, some other, any other, others, no other than,* etc.

1. Is your book lost? Buy *another.*
2. There were two brothers. *One* was a cripple, and *the other* was deaf and dumb.
3. I am not speaking of Miss Yang; I am speaking of *the other* girl, her room-mate.
4. Only I was present. All *the others* were sick at home.
5. *Another* day, he came in at breakfast time.
6. *Other* people have *other* things to do.
7. He saw *one* (cinema) show after *another.*
8. *Others* may do what they like and say what they like, but I will not be influenced by them.
9. We must find *some other* way.
10. Is there *any other* person you want to see?
11. This is not *the same* book *as* mine.
12. It is *the same that* I borrowed from you.
13. He is *the same* person *that* called yesterday.
14. He can give *no other* reason *than* mere laziness for not handing in his composition.
15. If you insist on sending the letter, it will have to be signed by *some other* person *than* myself.

8.30. Possessive Pronouns and Nouns.—We have studied in § § 7.20–7.21 the possessive pronn. *my, your,* and *mine, yours,* etc. Nouns in the possessive case add an "apostrophe *s*" (*'s*) in the singular , as *bird's, person's.* These are all true determinative words, and are easy to use. The only peculiar forms of the possessives in *'s* are exemplified by the following:

(*a*) *Plural nouns:*
birds' nest(s)
three days' journey
persons' faults

others' ideas
friends' help
parents' consent
women's troubles

(*b*) *Singulars in s:*
James's horse
Jones's children
Charles's letter
Pythagoras's teaching
Ulysses' Return
Moses' journey
Jesus' words

(*c*) *For ~'s sake:*
for goodness' sake
for peace' sake
for convenience' sake
for conscience' sake
(But, for brevity's sake,
for argument's sake)

(*d*) *Compound nouns:*
the Duke of York's brother
the Queen of Sheba's beauty
Schwab & Son's
Governor of New York's statement
Emperor of Japan's cousin
Government of India's position

(*e*) *Nouns in apposition:*
Philip the Great's son
Henry the Tailor's bills
My brother Yujen's book
William the Second's death

In (*b*) we read [siz] for *s's*. Where the word already ends in *s–s* sound (Ulys*ses*, Mo*ses*, Je*sus*), it is best to omit the additional *s* just as in *things', birds'* (not *things's, birds's*). The examples in (*c*), *for...sake*, may be considered special cases; the apostrophe *s* is omitted because *s's* before *sake* would not sound nice. The examples in (*d*) are compound names, and those in (*e*) contain two nn. which refer to the same person ("in apposition"). Of course we do not say *my brother's Yujen's wife*.

The expressions **of yours, of mine, of my father's** have already been mentioned in § 7.21. They are quite peculiar and idiomatic English constructions. Examples of their use are:—

He was a very dear friend *of her uncle's*.
It was a great idea *of his* that China could be saved through

rural education.

It was a fond hobby *of my father's* to collect curios.

It is a fond dream *of mine* to visit Spain.

Those fingernails *of yours* are a disgrace.

Look at that nice son *of yours*.

Take home these paintings *of his* and tell me what you think of them.

Notice that in all these examples, either something familiar or something we are fond of is expressed. *That nice son* of *yours* (familiar use) implies also some contempt: compare Chinese 你那个好儿子. There is always some tinge of emotion (hatred, love, familiarity) associated with this form of possessives. There is no point in saying, for instance, *the monthly income of his* for *his monthly income*. In fact, we may call this the "familiar possessive."

Notice also we cannot say *that your, this my* for 你那个, 我这个 in English; we have to say *that...of yours, this...of mine*.

8.40. Apposition and Example.—Following are examples of the use of apposition for the purpose of determination:—

Your brother was killed. Which brother? Teh-ming. Your brother *Teh-ming* was killed.

Teh-ming was killed. Which Teh-ming? Teh-ming, *your brother*, was killed.

Mary, *the mother of Jesus*, was not Mary *Magdalen*.

Edith Wharton, *the woman novelist*, is an American.

Mr. Jones, *the President of the National Bank*, committed suicide last night.

Captain Byrd, *the explorer of the Antarctic*, returned to civilization after a two years' absence.

My servant *Ko-fu* is now ill.

There are many kinds of infectious diseases, *cholera, typhoid and diphtheria,* now in this city.
I have met many famous men of their country, *writers, generals, militarists and Socialist leaders.*

In all these examples, the phrase in italics modifies or makes clear the meaning of the preceding n. or pron. The construction is therefore very simple. Words used in apposition must be in the same case as the words they modify, thus—

Then *we* three, Kuo-fang, Min-cheng and *I,* started together.
They tried to catch *us,* Kuo-fang, Min-cheng and *me* (*myself*).

In the last two examples in the first part of this section (*There are many kinds of diseases,* etc.), the words in apposition are really examples or instances (*cholera, typhoid, diphtheria*) of the word they modify (*diseases*). Such examples are usually introduced by the phrases:—

such as	as follows
for example ("e.g.")	that is ("i.e.")
for instance	namely ("viz.")

As follows is always used to mean *as what follows.* We never say *as follow,* even when many things follow.

Exercise 58. (I) Words in apposition are used for general purposes of modification as well as for determination. Point out the appositive words in the following and tell whether they are used only for determination or for other purposes of modification.

1. The Chinese Emperor, a mere boy of seven years old, had to abdicate the throne.
2. He, a father of grown-up daughters, was still running round with all sorts of women.
3. Edison, the famous inventor, is a friend of Henry Ford,

the automobile king.
4. Herbert Hoover, the President of the United States, was an official mining engineer of the Manchu Government in his early days.
5. Your cousin Mary is engaged to be married.
6. Tom, the piper's son, stole a pig.

(II) Fill in appositive words in the following:—
1. Mr. Chang, the—— of the paper, was arrested.
2. I like all kinds of fruit, ——, ——, —— and ——.

Sequence, Alternation and Distribution

8.50. Sequence: the Ordinals.—The numbers 1,2,3,4, etc. are called "cardinals," while the numbers of sequence lst, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, etc. are called "ordinals" in grammar. From the fourth on, the following numbers always take a *th*, except numbers with "one," "two," "three" which still keep the *first*, *second* and *third*. *Eighth* has only one *t*, *ninth* is spelt with the *e* in *nine* omitted, and *twelveth* bocomes *twelfth*. Thus—

fifth	twelfth	fiftieth
eighth	thirteenth	forty-first
ninth	hundredth	eighty-second
tenth	thousandth	seventy-third
eleventh	fortieth	hundred and first

Notice also that we say—

Number one, *but*: the first one.
Number two, *but*: the second one.
Book one, *but*: the first book,

Volume two, *but*: the second volume.

It is more common to use "No." with the bigger numbers, thus "prisoner No. 1075," seat No. C75," etc.

These ordinals form advv. by having *-ly* added to them, thus *firstly, secondly, thirdly, lastly,* etc. But *first* and *last* can otherwise be used as advv. also, as *He came first, I came last, Last came the cripple.*

Some special uses of these sequence words are shown in the following examples:—

He came *on the* 12*th* (of this month).
Go from the *ground floor* [楼下] to the *first floor* [二楼], then to the *second floor* [三楼], *third floor* [四楼], etc.
The student gets promoted from the *first form* (or *first year*) [一年级] to the *second form* (or *second year*) [二年级], etc. In some places, *first* is the highest, and *sixth* is the lowest, but this is not usual.
Take the *next to the last* seat. [倒数第二位]
Pronounce *the last* word *but* (=except) *one*.
Read from *the last* line *but two*. [倒数第三行]
Next to Ke-min, Wang Lo is the best student in class. Wang Lo is *the next best* (or *second best*).
Hand in your compositions *next Wednesday* (=nearest coming Wednesday=Wednesday of this week if said on Monday, Tuesday; but Wednesday of the next week if said on Thursday, etc.).
I met him *last Tuesday* (or *on Tuesday last*).

Exercise 59. Make some sentences with some of the above phrases.

8.60. Alternation and Distribution.—There are times when we want to refer to some particular numbers in a

group or series, with a half definite and half indefinite meaning. The use of such expressions is best illustrated by examples.

Either...or, neither...nor, every other, every third, every ninth, etc.

Either he *or* she is to blame.
Either of the two (=any one) will do.
You either do what I say *or* leave this place.
What you do is *neither* wise *nor* honourable.
Either come in *or* go out.
He is *neither* able, *nor* experienced, *nor* willing to work hard and learn.
They have now divorced each other, *either* through his *or* through her fault.
I am not going to retract my words. *Nor* am I going to apologize. *Neither* is he.
You have lost your job? I have nothing to do myself, *either.*
I cannot help you, *either.* (=*Nor* can I help you.)
Take *either* end (*either* this *or* that).
The river overflowed on *either* side (=on both sides).
If you do not go, I shall not *either* (=also).
There is no time to lose, *either* (=besides).
He came here *every other* day (=once in *every two* days=on *alternate* days).
The doctor visits her *every third* day (or *every three days*).
Every eighty-second year, the comet comes back to us.

Each, respective(ly). These may be called distributive words, for the meaning refers to each one or each group separately.

They had one box *each.*
Each of them *was* given a box.
They had *each a* bed to *himself.*

They had *each his* own bed.
We went *each our* own way.
We had *each a* new suit of uniform (or: new pair of shoes).
Go to your *respective* seats. (=Go *each* to *your* own seat.)
They were rewarded according to their *respective* merits (=*each* according to *his* merit).
A and B contributed the *respective* sums of thirty and fifty dollars.
The colleges for men and women are to be built *respectively* on the south and southeast sides of the c. mpound.

(For the use of *each other* and *one another,* see § 7.23.)

Exercise 60. Use the above phrases in sentences of your own.

Definite and Indefinite

8.70. "A," "An" and "The."—*A boy* means an indefinite boy, and *the boy* means a definite boy. This is really the same as Chinese *i-ko* (一个) and *cheh-ko* (这个). Hence, *a* is called "the indefinite article" and *the* is called the "definite article." *A* expresses indefinite singular (*a boy*), while indefinite plural is expressed without any article (*boys*). Thus we have—

	Singular	*Plural*
Indefinite	a boy	boys
Definite	the boy	the boys

All this is very simple and just like the Chinese *i-ko jen, cheh-ko jen, jen* (一个人，这个人，人). The only difference is Chinese nn. have no plural ending, so that the indef-

inite plural is expressed in Chinese, for example, by *jen ta hu, hu ch'ih jen* (人打虎，虎喫人, like singular in form), but in English by *Men kill tigers* and *Tigers eat men* (in plural form).

But in English, abstract nn, (*knowledge, courage*) and mass-words (*water, milk*) have no plural forms, because they really have no number and cannot be counted (it would be nonsense to say *one knowledge, two knowledges*), so it happens that indefinite abstract nn., like Chinese words, are expressed in the singular form without any article. Thus—

ABSTRACT	CONCRETE
Knowledge is virtue.	Women are men.
Knowledge kills virtue.	Women marry men.
Virtue kills knowledge.	Men marry women.

On the other hand, definite abstract nn. or mass-words may have the article *the*, as *the water you drink, the knowledge of the students, the milk in the coffee, the health of the family*.

"An" is used instead of "a" before words beginning with the vowels, *a, e, i, o, u*, except when these vowels are pronounced really with a consonant, *w* or *y*, at the beginning. Thus the "long u" is really [j+u:] and so requires *a* instead of *an*. Examples are:—

a university [ˌju(:)niˈvə:s(i)ti]	such *a* one [wʌn]
a useful servant	*a* one-hour class
a united policy	*a* once popular writer

Some people still write *an historian,* because *h* in the unaccented syllable *his-* is weakened so that the word is pronouned almost like *an istorian.* Also: *an historical play, an heroic act* [(h)is'tɔrikəl; (h)i'rouik]. But today many people do not do this; they use *a* even before *h* in unaccented syllables.

Exercise 61. Point out in the following why *a* or *the* is used, or why both are omitted. Is the meaning definite or indefinite, singular or plural, or neither singular nor plural (with abstract words which cannot be counted)?

1. *A* letter was received from Hongkong, but, as it was unsigned, nobody knows who was *the* writer of *the* letter.
2. There was *a* Jones in the same college.
3. *A* man named Bailey called this morning, but finding you not at home, he walked all over *the* house.
4. Jackson is one of *the* best students in physics, if not *the* best.
5. *A* Mrs. Watson was at the witness box.
6. That's *a* lie!
7. *Liars* must have *a* good memory.
8. *Beggars* must not be *choosers.*
9. They are talking like *a* pair of lovers.
10. That's *the* girl!
11. It's *the* only right thing to do.
12. Have *the* letter sent at once.
13. Help me with *money* and not with empty *words.*
14. He is giving up *medicine* and going to study *law.*
15. Don't talk to me about *religion* and *sins* and *prayers.*
16. I want three things in life: *work, a* good library, and *a* woman who understands.

8.71. Generalization: "a Cat," "the Cat," "Cats."— When we talk about things in general, we may use the

plural without article or use *a* or *the* in the "generic singular" (§ 5.25). Thus—

(1) *Englishmen* are usually reserved in manners.
(2) *An Englishman* seldom talks to strangers.
(3) *The Englishman* is quite different from *the Frenchman* in his manners.

The third form refers to an abstract idea of "the Englishman," and is not found in Chinese. Here the abstract "Englishman" is made to represent "all Englishmen." Also—

(1)	*Cats* are afraid of *dogs.*	(Indefinite pl.)
(2)	*A cat* is afraid of *a* dog.	(Indefinite sing.)
(3)	*The cat* is afraid of *the dog.*	(Abstract type)

Exercise 62. Study the following examples, and see if it is possible sometimes to change the generic singulars into generic (or indefinite) plurals and *vice versa*:—

1. According to the Christian prayer-book, *the bridegroom* promises to love and protect, and *the bride* promises to love and obey.
2. *The short story* is a modern invention, and so are *short skirts.*
3. *The steam-engine* was invented over a hundred years ago.
4. The boy stays with his father four months in *the year,* and lives with his mother during the rest of the time.
5. *The modern mother* does not feed her *baby* at midnight. *The baby* will sleep till early morning once it forms the habit.

6. *Modern fathers* must be good pals (=comrades) to their *sons.*
7. Mr. Hsü has all *the poet's* ways and *the poet's* weaknesses.
8. When *a lion* meets *a lamb,* one plus one makes one.
9. Mr. Ma looks like *a thinker.* He has *the thinker's* face, thin and wan.
10. *The busy doctor's* time is not his own.
11. Do *actors* and *actresses* always lead immoral lives? Must they always have *scandals?*
12. This costs $3.75 *a yard.*

8.72. Special Uses of "A" and "The."—There are some special uses of "a" and "the" which must be mentioned here.

(1) In regard to pronunciation, *a* is pronounced [ei] when accented or stressed, but otherwise and generally [ə]. *The* is pronounced [ði:] only when accented or stressed, otherwise [ðə] before following consonants, and [ði] before vowels. As Chinese students of English often make a mistake in pronouncing these two words generally with accent or stress when they should be unaccented, it is very important for them to learn to pronounce them correctly.

I said *a* hat, *an* egg, not hats, eggs. [ai sed ˈei ˈhæt|ˈæn‿ˈeg| nɔt ˈhæts|ˈegz|—|]

Yes, that is *the* Mr. Wang I mean. [ˈjes ðæts ˈði: mistə ˈwaŋ ai ˈmi:n|—|]

a boy [əˈbɔi]	*the* story [ðə ˈstɔ:ri]
an eagle [ən‿ˈi:gl]	*the* horse [ðəˈhɔ:s]
the idea [ði aiˈdiə]	*the* ear [ði ˈi–] or [ði: ˈiə]
the only... [ði ˈounli...]	*the* ants [ði ˈænts]

(2) What a, quite a, such a, many a, rather a.—

What a lie!	*Quite a* long essay.

What a nuisance!	*Many a* time.
Such a question!	*Many a* young man.
Such a government.	*Many a* husband.
Such a fool.	*Rather a* nuisance.
Quite a comfort.	*Rather a* failure.
Quite a good student.	*Rather a* new thing.

(3) How...a, too...a, so...a, as...a.—

How different *a* fate!	*So* rash *a* step.
Too serious *a* matter.	*So* good *an* opportunity.
Too important *a* question.	*As* quick *a* writer *as...*
So queer *an* idea.	*As* able *a* man *as...*

Instead of *how different a fate,* we can say *what a different fate,* and instead of *so queer an idea,* we can say *such a queer idea.*

(4) "The" before proper names. "The" is generally not used before proper names, except (*a*) before river names, (*b*) before proper names in plural, (*c*) when denoting some particular phase or aspect of the thing represented by the proper name, and (*d*) when followed by an adj.

(*a*) *The* Yellow River. *The* Yangtse. *The* Nile. *The* Rhine.
(*b*) *The* Lins and Chens. *The* Stuarts. *The* Chinese. *The* Alps.
(*c*) *The* China (of) today is not *the* China of our grandfathers.
The John Roebuck that I know is quite a different kind of person.
She sees only *the* Rod at the fireside, *the* Rod who plays with his children, not *the* Rod who swings the whip over poor workers.
(*d*) *The* young Dickens (Dickens when he was young).
The noble and great Frederick.
The seventy-year-old Mr. Chang had to call *the* five-year old Wu-chi "uncle."

The old China. *The* new China.

(5) **"The" as adv. of degree.** This use is very common. Examples are:—

The sooner he is gone, *the better* it is for all of us. *The sooner* gone, *the better. The sooner, the better.*

The more, the better.

The more, the merrier. The more people there are, *the merrier* it is.

The more he flatters, *the less* I like him.

The older he grows, *the more shameless* he becomes.

If he will not come, that is *so much the* better.

Instead of hating him, I like him *all the more* for it.

He refused to pay? *So much the worse* for him.

Exercise 63. Make some sentences with the phrases studied in this section.

8.73. Omission of "A" and "The."—The use or omission of "a" or "the" is often a difficult thing to decide. Many foreign students who have studied English for ten or twenty years still often find a doubt in meeting with such a question. Thus, shall we say "find a doubt," or "find doubt" or "find doubts" in the above sentence? There is a psychological reason for this difficulty, and we shall soon see it.

(1) It is clear that, as we have said in § 8.70, abstract nn. and mass-words require no article (*the* or *a*) when the meaning is indefinite, but require the definite article *the* when the meaning is definite. Thus:—

INDEEINITE		DEFINITE
He wants power.	But:	He wants *the* power to vote.
Drink water.	But:	Drink *the* water in the cup.

Hence, we also say *have patience, take time, spend money,*

because *patience, time, money* are regarded as abstract nn., and *eat ice-cream, drink tea, add milk* because *ice-cream, tea* and *milk* are mass-words (§ 4.51).

So far so good. But examine the following common phrases, all with *the* omitted:—

go to school (hospital)	out of job
in school (class)	at sunrise
after class	at night (but: in *the* night)
after dinner	by day
during dinner	all day long
have (take) dinner	at noon (midday)
go to church	without (beyond) question
after sermon	without doubt
go to bed	sold at auction
lie in bed	shut up shop
out of bed	open shop (school)
at table	take bath
go to law-court	in fashion
at home	for (on) sale
not in office	on business

Notice that all the nn. in the above examples refer to some **action or event.** The peculiarity of an action or event is that it is half visible and half invisible. We can see some people eating at dinner; therefore, we say we can see the dinner. And yet we cannot touch the dinner (or dining) as we can touch a table. These words are therefore half concrete and half abstract words, standing between the abstract nn. *hunger, satisfaction* and the concrete nn. *kinves* and *forks.* Hence, we sometimes use, and sometimes omit, the article. We say:—

After crying ....Or: after *a* good cry.

Give help ....Or: give *a* help.
Serve dinner ....Or: serve *a* dinner.
Under examination ....Or: under *an* examination.

Now, in the above examples (*go to school*, etc.) all the seemingly concrete words *school, church, class, bed, hospital, home, office, law-court* really stand for some sort of action (teaching, praying, studying, sleeping, etc.) Hence, we can say:

Go to school......................Or: go to *the* school.
Go to hospital ....Or: go to *a* hospital.
Not in office ....Or: not in *the* office.
Beyond question .... Or: beyond *a* question.
Take bath ....Or: take *a* bath.
Have dinner ....Or: have *a* dinner.
Resign work ....Or: resign *the* work.
Sold at auction..................Or: sold at *an* auction.
Shut up shop......................Or: shut up *the* shop.

And, because the above phrases are in very common use, therefore, we habitually omit the article before the nn. It is more idiomatic to say "Have dinner with me" than to say "Have *a* dinner with me."

(2) A second source of trouble is that abstract nn. often have concrete meanings, and nn. of action (or, we may say, half-concrete nn.) often develop abstract meanings (cf. § § 4.20–4.30). If we regard them as abstract, we often drop the article, and if we regard them as concrete, or partially concrete, we use *a* or *the*. Thus—

CONCRETE	ABSTRACT
They have formed *a* trade *union*.	In *union* there is strength.
This man has *a* special *system*	What you want here is *system*.

for indexing.

She has found *a* new *love*(=lover).	She does not understand what *love* is.
He gave me *a* wrong *medicine*.	He is going to study *medicine*.
Where is *the money* you gave me?	He has *money*, influence and powr.
Take up *a business*.	*Business* is as usual.
Learn *a* trade.	*Trade* is at a standstill.
Receive *a favour*.	Show *favour* to some one.

Exercise 64. Take some of the above phrases (*go to school, in school, after class*, etc.) and some of the nn. of action, and concrete or abstract nn., and use them in sentences of your own. Show the reason why the article is used or omitted. *His, my, this,* etc. may be used instead of the article.

(3) The article is often dropped in regular phrases, as *the soldiers in uniform* (not *in a uniform*, or in *uniforms*), and *translate word by word* (not *one word by one word*), *learn it by heart* (not *by the heart*). Often, it is possible to insert the article or the words *some, any, my,* etc., when the meaning is more concrete and specialized and the phrase loses therefore its general character Thus, we say, *last* or *at the last, by chance* or *by a queer chance, beyond question* or *beyond any question, go by train* or *go by the next train*. See if you can use the following phrases:—

week by week	go by boat
day by day	come by train
step by step	set foot on China 到中国
man for man 以个人比较	came on foot 步行而来
tit for tat 报复	leave word for him 留言
in case, in this case	in point of fact 事实上
in fact, in actual fact	in view of 为…起见
by chance, by some chance	clean house 扫除积弊
at heart, at his heart	play tennis

by mistake, by a bad mistake	at night
eat by mouth	at noon

(4) Finally, articles may be omitted before nn. used as modifiers, which approach adjj. in meaning:—

He was not *man* enough to confess his mistake.
Mr. Hsü, *poet* and *painter*, arrived yesterday.
I met Mr. Hsü, the *brother* of Hsü Tien-hsi and *husband* of Su-cheng (second *the* usually omitted).
They have elected him *president* of the company.
He acted as *secretary* to Li Yuan-hung.

Indetermination

8.80. Indetermination.—We have studied now the various means of expressing determination, whether definite or indefinite (*a* and *the*), and of making generalizations (§ 8.71). It remains now to study how the idea of lack of determination is expressed in English. The common phrases are:—

Marry *any old* fool for a husband.
Pay it in *any old* way you want.
Pay it in *whatever* way you want.
I will do it, *whatever* he says.
Whatever you do, don't offend him again.
Whatever you think of it, I am going to get married to this girl.
Is there any chance *whatever* of our escape?
He has no friend *whatever* in this city.
He cannot do it, *however* he tried.
He cannot do it, *no matter how* he tried.
He will not consent, *no matter how* hard you try to persuade him.

No matter what you think, it is I who am going to get married.

No matter what you do, don't offend him again.

I will do it, *no matter what* he says.

You can pay me at any time, *no matter when.*

In any case, there is no use discussing it now.

Anyhow, it is too late now.

The boat floated *wherever* it pleased.

Wherever Mary went, the little lamb was sure to go.

Wherever there is a stream of water with fish in it, there you may look for the kingfisher.

You may come *whenever* you like (please).

The kingfisher flies away *whenever* it sees a man.

The words **whatever, whoever, however, whenever, wherever** require some special notice. The last three are easy and are used as special forms of the conjunctive advv. *how, when* and *where,* introducting clauses. Thus—

How he tried.	*However* he tried.
When he remembers.	*Whenever* he remembers.
Where he went.	*Wherever* he went.

Whatever, whoever, too, can be used as special forms of *what* (=*no matter what*) and *who* (=*no matter who*). The only peculiar thing to notice here is that we often have apparently two vbb. to these words. Thus in—

(What I have) is yours,
(Whatever I have) is yours,

it is quite clear that *what(ever) I have* is the subject of *is.* Hence we have such constructions as—

(What *is* left) *is* quite worthless.
(Whatever *is* left) *is* taken away.

Similarly, *who* and *whoever* are used as in the following:—

(Who *steals* my purse) *steals* trash.
(Who *breaks*) *pays*.
(Whoever *said* this) *is* a liar.
(Whoever *kills* the enemy captain) *shall have* my daughter for his wife.

It would be wrong to say—

Whoever said this, *he* is a liar.
Whoever kills the enemy chief, *he* shall marry my daughter.

Compare also § 7.31 "c" for the use of *whoever* and *whomever* and for further examples.

Exercise 65. Make sentences with *whatever, whoever, whenever, wherever* and *however* after the models given above, and study closely the grammatical relations of these words. *However, whenever* and *wherever* are used as conjunctive advv. It is best to regard *whatever* and *whoever* as conjunctive pronn., and *no matter what, no matter who* as conjunctive pronominal phrases.

CHAPTER IX

MODIFICATION

9.10. Modification: Its Importance.—We have mentioned in our discussion on sentence structure (§ 3.22) that a sentence, no matter how long and complicated, really consists of some of the five parts: (1) subject, (2) principal vb., (3) object, (4) modifiers (including prepositional phrases), and (5) conjunctions. Without the modifiers and conjunctions, we should all be speaking short, bald sentences like these—

Flood came.
Mother died, father disappeared—son sat—door-step—wept.
Student was punished—stole books—proctor saw—dismissed—school—was beaten—father—became robber—became emperor—China.

Thus we should not be able to say where and when the flood came, and whether it was a big flood, a small flood, a terrible flood, or a flood that lasted only three hours—or whether it was a flood of water, or a flood of news, or a flood of tears, or a flood of words. Examine also the following sentence and see what an important part is played by the modifying words, phrases and clauses in italics (phrases and clauses are in brackets):—

(*All of a sudden*) and (*without any warning*) *the terrible* flood came, (*a foaming, furious, thundering torrent*), (*that destroyed houses, streets and whole villages*), (*drowning men, women chil-*

dren, cats, dogs and cattle) and (*turning the whole region into a lake, dotted here and there with tree-tops and house-roofs with men and women on them like drowned monkeys*).

Thus we have—

1. *All of a sudden* modifying *came,* or showing how the flood came.
2. *Without any warning* also showing how.
3. *The* modifying *flood.*
4. *Terrible* also modifying *flood.*
5. *A foaming, furious, thundering torrent,* an appositive phrase, showing what kind of a flood it was. The first four words again modify *torrent.*
6. *That destroyed houses, streets and whole villages,* a relative clause modifying *flood.*
7. *Drowning men, women, children, cats, dogs and cattle,* a participial phrase also modifying *flood.*
8. *Turning the whole region* to *like drowned monkeys,* another participial phrase modifying *flood.*
   Into a lake further modifies *turning.*
   Dotted further modifies *lake.*
   Here and there further modifies *dotted.*
   With tree-tops and house-roofs modifies *dotted.*
   With men and women on them modifies *house-roofs.*
   Like drowned monkeys modifies *men* and *women.*

Thus at every step we are tripping on the toes of modifying words and phrases without suspecting them.

Since modification is so common and important, a study

of the various means of expressing this will greatly help the student in a fluent mastery of the English language and a better understanding of the structure of English sentences. When modification is understood, there are no other problems about sentence structure, because the subjects, principal vbb., objects and conjunctions are usually easy to find out. We shall study in this chapter, for instance, such common and important constructions as the relative clause, the prepositional phrase, the participial phrase, the infinitive phrase and the complements of principal vbb. which are all some form of modifiers.

9.11. Word-Classes and Word-Ranks.—In the phrase *exceptionally fine music,* we say that *fine* modifies *music,* and *exceptionally* modifies *fine.* Here we feel the n. *music* to be the principal or chief word, and *fine* to be only a word used to qualify or modify it; *exceptionally,* again, is logically subordinate to *fine.* Hence, it is possible to speak of "word-rank": the modified word seems to stand on a higher rank than its modifier. Similarly, we can distinguish three ranks in the phrases: *very* (3) *entertaining* (2) book (1), or *quite* (3) *well* (2) *written* (1), or *rapidly* (3) *rising* (2) *reputation* (1). It will help us to understand the relationships between modifiers and modified, if we use the terms "higher rank," "lower rank" (or "subordinate") and "equal rank" (or "co-ordinate"). Of course, we can have more than three ranks: thus in the following, each added word, except "a", modifies the modifier which stands after it—

an essay
a written essay
a well written essay

a very well written essay
a not very well written essay
a certainly not very well written essay

Word-ranks are different from word-classes or parts of speech. Usually the first modified word is a n., the first modifier is an adj., and the third, fourth and further modifiers are advv. But this is not always the case: thus in the phrase *He writes well,* the modified word is a vb. *write,* and not a n., and the first modifier is an adv. *well,* and not an adj. It is, therefore, necessary to keep the two classes of ideas apart: the terms "noun," "pronoun," "adjective," "adverb," etc. refer to their word-classes, while the terms "modifier" and "modified" express their word-ranks with reference to one another.* Thus, in the phrase *book cover,* we may say the n. *book* is a "modifier" of the n. *cover.* This is probably clearer than to say that "the n. *book* is used as an adj." We speak of "modifiers" and "modified" when referring to work-ranks, and speak of 'nouns," "adjectives," etc. when referring to word-classes or parts of speech.

* * *

The following sections (§ § 9.20–9.27, pp. 214–235) *may be partly or entirely omitted at the teacher's discretion for less advanced classes.*

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* Jespersen, who first enunciated the theory of "word-ranks," uses the term "primary" for the chief modified word, "adjunct" (or "secondary word") for the first modifier, and "subjunct" (or "tertiary word") for the second modifier. For the sake of simplicity, which is quite a consideration in grammars for students, these words are avoided, and only the terms "modifier" and "modified" are used here.

Relationship between Modified and Modifier

9.20. Relationship between Modified and Modifier.—The most common combinations of modifier and modified are either (1) of the *written essay* type, where we have 1 adj. +1 n., or (2) of the *book cover* type, where we have two nn., the first being used to modify the second. The relationship between the modified and the modifier in these two types should be studied, and often there is a question as to which type is the proper one to use. It has already been pointed out in § 2.21 that both *Japan tour* and *Japanese tour* (=tour through Japan) may be used; also both *college student* and *collegiate student*, and both *South China* and *Southern China*. It has further been pointed out that combinations of the second type, like *stone wall, honey-bee, motor roads,* show different relationships between the modifying word and the modified. A stone wall is a wall made of stone, the honey-bee is the bee producing honey, and a motor road is a road for motor cars.

Now it should be noticed that this second type is very common in modern English. Thus it is very common to find expressions like *the geography teacher* (地理教员), *the China problem* (中国问题), *the food problem* (粮食问题), *the Disbandment Conference* (编遣会议), *maternity hospital* (接生医院) and *the fire-brigade* (救火队). One should not say *the communicative system* for 交通系统, but *communication system,* nor *unemployed situation* for 失业状况, but *unemployment situation.* Logically speaking, the situation is not *unemployed,* but there is a situation *of unemployment,* nor is the system *communicative,* but really the system *of communication*

is meant. Below are some more examples:—

air transport 航空运输	birthday party 寿宴
temperance society 禁酒会	wedding march 结婚进行曲
water problem 饮水问题	swimming suit 游泳衣
employment bureau 职业介绍所	bathing costume 浴装
arithmetic class 算术课	fishing-boat 渔船
railway regulations 铁道章程	washing-woman 洗衣妇
trade mission 商业调查旅行团	printing machine 印刷机
peace conference 和平会议	dancing party 跳舞会
war council 军事会议	dining-room 饭厅

It may be noticed here that *a bathing costume* does not refer to a costume which bathes, but one used for bathing: thus *bathing* is here originally a vb. turned into a n. and then used as a modifier. Similarly, *a fishing-boat* is a boat used for fishing purposes. (But *a sailing-boat* may mean a boat which sails, and a *printing machine* may mean a machine which prints as well as a boat for sailing and a machine for printing.)

On the other hand, we must notice that the English language has certain phrases which may seem logically wrong, but are idiomatically recognized today. Thus a *dead march* is the correct expression for a funeral march (cf. *wedding march*), and *a mad-doctor* is the correct expression for a doctor of brain diseases (cf. *madman, mad dog*). These phrases are created for convenience. Again *Foreign Office* is strictly Foreign Affairs Office or Office of the Secretary for Foreign Affairs (who is also called "Foreign Secretary," but who is really not "foreign" at all). Further examples are:—

Criminal lawyer, lawyer for criminal cases (刑法律师，刑名师爷).
Insolvent court, court to decide cases of insolvency or bankruptcy

(处置破产者之法庭).
Greek student, student of Greek language and literature.
Indian problem, problem of India.
English teacher, teacher of English who may be a Chinese.
Dead list, list of the dead in battle (阵亡表).
A sickroom, not a sick room, but a room for sick people (病房).
Female education, education for women (女子教育).
Comparative literature, comparative study of the literatures of different peoples (比较文学).
Clinical thermometer, one for clinical use (医生验温表).
Married life, life of married men or women (结婚生活).
Dying wish, wish of a dying man (临死遗嘱).
Historical novelist, a writer of historical novels.
Easy money, money that is earned without trouble.
Difficult friend, friend difficult to get along with.
Lazy time, time when one is lazy or idle.

It may be noticed that in the case of *dead list* (=list of the dead), we have an adj. *dead* used as a n., which is then used as an adj. or modifier again. On the other hand, we have *death-duties* (=遗产继承税, tax levied on property before it goes to the heir of the dead), *deathbed* (=that on which one dies) and *death-rate* (=死亡率, the rate of death in a population).

Exercise 66. Simplify the following phrases by making them into phrases of the *water problem* and *peace conference* type:—

1. A cake like the moon of the Mid-Autumn (中秋月饼).
2. A present for Christmas (圣诞节礼物).
3. A cake for his birthday (寿糕).
4. A gift for the New Year (年礼).
5. His clothes for Sundays (星期日服).
6. Her gown for the night-time (卧服, 寝衣).
7. My studies at school (学堂功课).

8. The days when he was a student (学生时代).
9. The new system of examination (考试制度).
10. The ceremonies for graduation (毕业典礼).
11. A painting of landscape (山水画).
12. The train leaving at eleven thirty (十一时三十分火车).
13. The railway running between Tientsin and Pukow (津浦铁路).
14. A reservation for a sleeping berth (卧车定位).
15. A card bearing your name (名片).
16. Your marks in algebra (代数分数).
17. A party in the evening (晚间宴会).
18. During the hours in the morning (早间).
19. Bad discipline in the dormitory (宿舍纪律).
20. Matters concerning money (钱项).
21. Reform of the currency (币制改革).
22. Bureau for the inspection of lace (花边检验局).

9.21. The Use and Omission of Hyphens.—From such examples, as *fireman, fire-brigade* and *fire station,* one can see that the same logical combination between modifier and modified may be sometimes written as a single word, sometimes as a hyphened compound, and sometimes as two separate words. In this respect, the English language presents a disgraceful chaos and confusion, and even usage cannot be always depended upon, because different writers and different dictionaries adopt different forms of spelling.* Some people write *blackboard, penknife, postgraduate,* and others write *black-board, pen-knife, post-graduate.* Again some people write *water-pressure* (水压), *wet-nurse* (乳母), *blood-heat* (血温)

* The *Modern English Usage* says, "The chaos prevailing among writers or printers or both regarding the use of hyphens is discreditable to English education" (p. 243), and again, "usage" is "so variable as to be better named caprice" (p. 245).

(with a hyphen) and others write *water pressure, wet nurse, blood heat* (without any hyphen). The three stages are also represented by—

	(1) football	(2) basket-ball	(3) volley ball
or	(1) bathtub	(2) bath-house	(3) bath chair (病家所用之挂轮自由椅)

These are spelt differently, although psychologically we feel all three as single words. The utter confusion may be further seen in the following examples:—

blackmail (1) 吓诈	gunboat (1), also (2)
blackbird (1)鸟名	gunshot (1), also (2)
blackguard (1) 光棍	gunpowder (1)
black-board (2), also (1)	gun-fire (2), also (1)
black-list (2), also (3) } 注意人	bloodhound (1)
black book (3), also (2) } 物名簿	bloodstone (1) 血玉髓
black-head (2), also (1) 粉刺	blood orange (3) 血红橘
black sheep (3) 害群之马	blood-heat (2), also (3)
waterproof (1), also (2) 不怕水	blood-relation (2), also (3)
water-tight (2) 不透水	blood brother (3), also (2)
water-plant (2), also (3) 水草属	homecoming (1), also (2)
New Year's Eve (3), also—	fire-irons (2) 火炉用具
New-Year's Eve (2)	fire-arms (2) 火器
headmaster (1), also (2) (3) 校长	firefly (1) 萤
footstool (1), also (2) 脚凳	fireplace (1)
fruit-knife (2), also (3) 削果刀	fire-escape (2), also (3) 太平梯
flag-pole (2), also (1)	fire station (3), also (2)
sunlight (1)	post office (3), also (2)
sun-beam (2)	pen-knife (2), also (1)
sun bath (3) 日光浴，晒日光	bath-tub (2), also (1)

The student should, however, closely observe the usage as far as his reading goes, and should also take some dictionary

as his standard, whenever in doubt. He should remember three things. (1) Many words which are written separately are really single words, as *full stop, Holy Ghost* (圣灵), *good will, short story, New Year, fair play* (公道), *foul play* (规犯, 诡计). (2) Most of the hyphened words have a dominant (or chief) stress on the first words, as *pen-knife, hand-bag, class-mate, class-room, day-time* ['pen-naif, 'hændbæg, 'klɑ:s-meit, 'klɑ:srum, 'deitaim] (which could all be written without hyphens as single words). If the chief stress falls on the second word, there should be generally no hypen, as *good will, short story, New Year, foul play* [gud 'wil, ʃɔ:t 'stɔ:ri, nju: 'jə:, faul 'plei]. (3) The difference between a hyphened word (*gun-cotton,* 绵火药) and a full compound word without hyphen (*gunpowder*) chiefly depends on age and usage. Generally, the older a word is and the more permanent the compound combination is felt to be, the more likely are we to drop the hyphen: as *madman, moonshine, sunlight, sunrise, waterproof, waterfall, rainfall, football, fireplace,* but *fire-brigade, water-tight, sun-beam, water-melon, basket-ball, side-walk* (or *sidewalk*) and *time-table.**

* After admitting the weltering chaos of the English language in this respect, Mr. H. W. Fowler, co-editor of the *Concise Oxford Dictionary,* believes that, after the lapse of twenty years, he has found a rule which "seems capable of converting the chaos ... into something like order... The simple rule is that in such compounds the legitimacy of hyphening depends solely on pronunciation: it must only be done if the two parts are said with a single (or with one clearly predominant) stress, and that falls on the first." (See the inserted remarks in the Preface in the 1929 revised edition.) Because *headmaster* is pronounced with the stress on *mas-*, and not on *head,* one should not hyphen it, but should write either *headmaster* or *head master,* "either of which will serve." And because *water ouzel* is pronounced with two equal stresses, there is no choice but to leave the compounds as two separate words without hyphen. This rule is psychologically correct and historically justified by the fact of Germanic stress-shifting. It does not alter the fact, however, that until Mr. Fowler's rule is generally followed by the majority of writers and printers, "usage" remains still "a weltering chaos,"

Relationship between Modifiers

9.22. Relationship between Modifiers.—It has been noticed in § 9.11 that the modifiers and modified stand in different ranks towards one another. e.g.—

well	(3)	written	(2)	essay	(1)
quite	(3)	well	(2)	written	(1)
very	(3)	entertaining	(2)	book	(1)
quickly	(3)	rising	(2)	reputation	(1)

In the above examples, the first rank represents the modified, the second rank its modifier, and the third rank the modifier of the modifier. The modifier is supposed to be subordinate to, or of lower rank than, the modified.

Keeping this in mind, we may distinguish the relationship between modifiers as either co-ordinate (of equal rank) or subordinate (lower rank). We have co-ordinate modifiers in *good, healthy child* (2+2+1), or *pale, thin face* (2+2+1), and one subordinate and one main modifier in *rather bitter disappointment* (3+2+1), or *thinly concealed lie* (3+2+1).

9.23. Co-ordinate Modifiers (2+2+1).—Let us now first study the co-ordinate modifiers (2+2+1). The simplest cases are:—

a small, clear handwriting
a beautiful, clear voice
a long, eventful career
a thin, long face

a sweet, graceful manner
those lonely, bare, stone houses
that stingy, dirty, little black backyard

Then, in English, we often have conjunctions of various kinds put in between these modifiers. e.g.—

a rainy *and* stormy weather
a careful *and* efficient worker
a tedious *and* long speech
a small *but* comfortable room
a very clever, *but* rather erratic (unsteady) chap
a brilliant, *but* thoroughly impracticable scheme
a mediocre, *but* serviceable book of reference
after a dangerous, *though* exciting adventure
a homely *but* clean-looking face
a glorious, *though* defeated fighter
making slow *but* sure progress
progressing slowly *but* surely

In certain phrases, these modifiers seem to merge with one another in meaning and in a way really modify one another. This is especially clear in phrases beginning with *nice and,* as *nice and clean, nice and cool, nice and warm, nice and soft.* Here *nice and* really acts as a kind of adv. modifier for the following adj. Thus, "The car is going *nice and fast*" means that it is going *fast in a nice way,* or *satisfactorily fast,* and "The house stands *nice and high*" really means that it stands high enough to satisfy you.* In the same way we have "*high and dry* talk" (=abstract talk) and "*high and mighty* manner (=proud, arrogant manner).

These co-ordinate modifiers are often used to reinforce one another's meaning, as in the above example of *that stingy, dirty, little black backyard,* where it seems the speaker can never condemn it enough, but must pile up more and more adjectives. In such cases, we practically never employ any conjunction, but just pile them up for accumulating effect. Some interesting examples are:—

I saw a *great, big* tiger.
He was a *tall, big, husky* fellow.

* Here the use of *and* is really similar to its use in "Be a good boy *and* get out of my presence," which means "Be *so* good *as to* get out of my presence."

Don't worry about such *small, little* things.
It was only a *tiny, little* spot.
That was your *great, good* luck (not *great good luck*, but *great luck and good luck*).
He had a *tremendous, big* fortune.
He had some *excellent, good* wine.
It was a *terrible, fearful-looking* thing.
You *dirty, low-down dog of a* scoundrel.
She had a *rich, golden* voice.

Finally, we have some very common combinations, where the several modifiers are not truly co-ordinate. If we examine the phrase *that nice young lady,* we find that this means something rather different from *that young nice lady.* The second form is usually not used, unless we want to emphasize the word *nice.* We see, therefore, that *young lady* forms a concept by itself which is modified by the word *nice,* and we mean really a *nice young lady,* and not just a *nice lady,* nor *nice and young lady.* The formula for this is really $2+(2+1)$. Similarly, we say "Take the *first fast train*" if we emphasize the *fast train* idea, and "Take the *fast first train*" if we emphasize the *first train* idea. It will be noticed, therefore, that the most closely related modifier always stands next to the word modified. Other examples are:—

your new straw-hat	a grand wedding party
every New Year's Day	his teacher's profession
his uncle's new book	her woman's heart
a big Christmas dinner	her mother's heart

In the last example, *mother's heart* forms a concept (=heart of a mother) modified by *her.* "The loss of the baby broke *her mother's heart*" means that it broke *her motherly heart,* and not the heart of the baby's grandmother.

Exercise 67. Make sentences or phrases with the following material. Decide which of the following types you wish to use:—

(a) *a small, clear handwriting* (without conj.)

(b) *a tedious and long speech; a clever, but unsteady chap* (with conjj. *and, or, but, though, although*)

(c) *that stingy, dirty, little black backyard* (piling up modifiers without conj.)

1. Horse—great, Arabic, racing.
2. Car—new, smart-looking, smooth-running, 1929 model.
3. Pen-knife—good-looking, useless.
4. Friend—formerly close, now forgotten.
5. Journey—eventful, miserable, long, three-day, exciting, wonderful, second, etc.
6. House—yellow, red-roofed, foreign-style, cheap-looking, small, moss-grown, ivy-covered, etc.
7. Essay—well-written, clear, not brilliant.
8. Student—so-so, not too good, not too bad.
9. Dress—bright-coloured, silk, new, smart, too thin.

9.24. Subordinate Modifiers (3+2+1).—There are some characteristic combinations of this type which need to be studied. The simplest combination is of course of the type *well* (3) *written* (2) *essay* (1), or *much* (3) *older* (2) *man* (1). The third rank need not always be an adv.; it could be an adj. or a n. Thus—

English	(3)	grammer	(2)	teacher	(1)
ready-made	(3)	boot	(2)	shop	(1)
second-hand	(3)	book	(2)	store	(1)
newspaper	(3)	manager's	(2)	office	(1)

In the case of *ready-made boot shop,* one should try to avoid confusion by the way of hyphening or joining words. Thus one should avoid such spellings as *ready-made boot-shop,* and *dirty clothes-basket; ready-made boot shop* and *dirty-clothes*

basket are preferable.

Study below the characteristic types often found in English:—

(*A*) *Hyphened modifiers*
ready-to-hand proof
lighter-than-air craft
four-month-old baby
three-inch-high heel
a better-than-nothing substitute

(*B*) *With adv.+participle*
the much regretted affair
the oft-repeated remark
the ill deserved punishment
a well-known author
a well-arranged and admirably carried out plan
the many-times repeated warning
some hitherto unpublished letters
the far-and-wide discussed new product
an internationally known playwright

(*C*) *With attached advv. or prepp.*
unheard-of wonders
unpaid-for goods
a dearly paid for mistake
undreamed-of success
a much talked-about affair
the most talked-about girl in Rome
well-nourished and well brought-up children
a tightly fastened down mouth
a long-drawn-out struggle

(*D*) *With prep. phrases*
the to me interesting idea
the for him very ordinary occurrence
this to her absolutely new experience
this in many respects inferior work
a for ever remembered incident

(*E*) *With infinitive phrases*
a strongly to be desired reform
those not to be avoided expenses
those clearly to be avoided mistakes

We may note here the internal relationships between the modifiers in some typical examples:—

(a) ready(2)-to-hand (3) proof (1), *or* (2+3)+1.

three-inch(3)-high (2) heel (1), *or* (3+2)+1.

(b) much (3) regretted (2) affair (1).
far-and-wide (3) discussed (2) new product (2+1).

(c) unheard(2)-of (3) wonders (1), *or* (2+3)+1.
dearly (3) paid for (2+3) mistake (1).

(d) to me (3) interesting (2) idea (1).
to her (3) absolutely (3) new (2) experience (1), *or* 3+(3+2)+1, *or* 4+(3+2)+1.

(e) strongly (3) to be desired (2) reform (1).
not (3) to be avoided (2) expenses (1).

It may be noticed now that the use of hyphens in the above examples is somewhat irregular. Thus we hyphen *well-arranged,* but not *admirably carried out;* again, we hyphen *long-drawn-out,* but not *tightly fastened down.* This difference, it should be clearly understood, is largely dictated by convenience only; we do not as a rule use any hyphen unless it is necessary or is a help toward clearness. The hyphen serves to show that the whole group of words is used in one grammatical function, thus *ready-to-hand* is used as one adjective. Like the parentheses in " (2+3)+1," it serves to bind the group together as a unit. Thus we write "This piano has *not* yet been *paid for,*" but "this *unpaid-for piano.*" In long combinations, like "*admirably carried out* plan" or "*tightly fastened down mouth,*" the use of hyphens is felt to be unnecessary and awkward-looking.

Exercise 68. Try to make phrases of the "a," "b," "c," "d," "e" types discussed above, by taking those given examples as models and change parts of them. Thus from the following originals, one might make the modifications:—

ORIGINAL	MODIFICATION
Hitherto unpublished letter	Hitherto unknown author.

Undreamed-of success ....Undreamed-of fame.
Unpaid-for goods ....Uncared-for children.
The most talked-about girl ....The most highly thought-of person.
This for him very ordinary occurrence ....This for me very common, etc.
Or complete the following phrases:—

good-for-nothing	a much talked-about new ......
worse-than-useless	a closely concealed ....
four-year-old	a closely guarded ....
well planned...........................	a much prayed-for ....
not very well performed	a tightly sealed-up ....
nationally known	a by no means bad ....
politically unwise	a in some respects better ....
to me uninteresting	a by far superior ....
for him unexpected	a soon to be completed ....

Shifted Ranks*

9.25. Shifted Ranks.—In English we often find a shifting of word-ranks in certain phrases. These are mainly of three types: (a) *probable winners,* from *those who probably win,* and *heavy sleepers* from *those who sleep heavily;* (b) *extraordinary good luck* for *extraordinarily good luck,* and *real wicked people* for *really wicked people;* and (c) *new-laid eggs* or *newly-laid eggs.* Type "a" represents a shifting from (adv.+vb.) to (adj.+n.). Type "b" represents the substitution of adjj. in places where advv. would normally be expected. Type "c" contains an adj. or an adv.+a participle.

* § 9.25 (pp. 226–230) may be omitted for less advanced students.

(a) Adv. + Vb. > Adj. + N. E.g. —

first offender	heavy eaters	perfect strangers
quick thinkers	sound thinkers	hard students
close prisoners	sound sleepers	good haters
probable winners	hard drinkers	(positive wrong)
early risers	swift runners	(comparative ease)
long residents	heavy losers	(almost certainty)

In all these cases, if we analyze carefully, we see that the modifiers modify only half of the modified words. *Heavy eaters* does not mean that the eaters are heavy, but that only eating is heavy: they eat heavily. *Good haters* does not mean the haters are good, but only they can hate very well. *Close prisoners* are not "close" at all (for that would make no sense), but they are *closely guarded. Perfect strangers* are far from "perfect," but are only *perfectly strange* to us. The last three examples in parentheses represent a shifting of ranks not from adv.+vb., but from adv.+adj.,—from *comparatively easy* and *positively wrong* to *comparative ease* and *positive wrong.*

Exercise 69. Change the following sentences with a shifting of word-ranks of the italicized words.

1. This fellow does not hear anything when he is asleep. He *sleeps soundly.*
2. Don't punish him too hard. This is the *first time* he ever *commits an offence.*
3. Among you three, Chu-lien is going to *lose most heavily* in this deal.
4. He *writes quickly.* He *writes rapidly.*
5. He *came* here *only a short while ago.* (New-comer.)
6. He *has been* in this country *a long time.* (Old-timer.)
7. This man *talks glibly.*

8. That man can be *easily victimized* or cheated.

(b) Adj.+Adj. There is a steady tendency in the English language to cut out the adv. ending *-ly* in places where briefness and force are wanted for effect, especially in colloquial speech. Thus *Come quick* is now more common than *Come quickly,* because the adding of the *-ly* seems to decrease the force of the word. One might say *He is devilishly handsome,* and *She is deucedly clever,* but it is more idiomatic to say *devilish handsome* and *deuced clever.* Similarly, *extraordinary good luck* and *real wicked people* are more expressive than *extraordinarily good* and *really wicked.* So also, we have the *-ly* regularly dropped in *dead, hard* and *fast* as advv., as *dead drunk, dead pale, dead tired, hard hit, hard pressed, run fast.* Notice that in the following examples, it is always adjj. expressing emphasis or intensity that are subject to this strange shifting of duty, which proves that the desire for brevity and force is the cause of this apparent shifting. Those examples not quite accepted in literary English are marked with an asterisk.*

(A)	burning hot soup	*mighty glad		bitter cold
	shocking bad novel	*jolly nice		biting cold
	real wicked guy	*jolly good		blazing hot
	excellent good friends	devilish handsome		
	real stubborn fellow	deuced clever	(C)	red-hot
	extraordinary good luck	confounded difficult		snowy-white
		*wondrous fine		ashy-pale
(B)	*exceeding small	*terrible strong		bitter-sweet
	*exceeding hot	dead tired		dark red
	*thundering good	dead drunk		deep blue
	passing strange	dead asleep		light green
	*uncommon fine	stark naked		wide open

* For the source of most of the examples given, see *Modern English Grammar*, II, 15.2.

One notices that the examples under "A" could easily be explained as having a real adj. in the first modifier. Thus *shocking bad novel* may mean a novel both bad and shocking, as well as *shockingly bad,* but *real stubborn fellow* must be explained as *real stubborn-fellow,* and *excellent good friends* must be explained as *excellent good-friends.* *Good friends, good luck, stubborn fellow* thus form single concepts modified by the adjj. The cases under "C" are really felt as compound modifiers, consisting of two adjj. Thus *red* modifies *hot, snowy* modifies *white,* and *ashy* modifies *pale,* but at the same time we feel that *red* also directly modifies the hot object, which looks red, and *snowy* also directly modifies the white substance. In the same way a window which is described as *wide open* is not only *widely open,* but is also wide because it is open: *wide,* therefore, directly modifies the window as well as *open.* A "*bittersweet* experience" is an experience that is both sweet and bitter; it is therefore different from a "*bitter cold* night" which means a night *bitter-ly cold.* *Dark red, deep blue* and *light green* are felt as compound adjj.

(c) Adj. or Adv.+Participle.

new-laid eggs, *or* newly laid eggs
new-born baby, *or* newly born baby
new-coined words, *or* newly coined words
newly-married couples
green-painted houses, *but* thoroughly re-painted car
smoky-looking walls
good-mannered people, *or* well-mannered people
moderate-sized building. *or* moderately sized building
foreign-built house
deep dug-in trenches
plain-spoken man

Just as in the case of *red-hot iron,* we retain the adj. form *red* because it partly modifies *iron* itself, so also in the case of *new-laid eggs,* it is possible to say *new,* because we are partly thinking of *new eggs.* In these cases, we can say *new* when we feel that it modifies *eggs,* and say *newly* when we intend it to modify the participle *laid.* Hence we can have *moderate sized houses* or *moderately sized houses,* but must say *green painted* and not *greenly painted. Foreign-built houses* does not mean that they are built by foreigners or in foreign countries, but that the houses themseves are in foreign style. These cases will be made clearer from a study of the following paragraph.

9.26. Transformed Phrases as Modifiers.—In the above examples, *good-mannered man* and *well mannered man, moderate-sized building* and *moderately sized building,* we have really two types of modifiers. The type *well mannered man* and *moderately sized building* is easy to understand or analyze. The other type really belongs to a large class of modifiers which are quite freely formed in English. These may really be regarded as phrases transformed into modifiers for the sake of convenience and brevity. Thus—

A moderate-sized building=a building *of moderate size.*
A good-mannered man=a man *of good manners.*

The concepts *moderate-size* and *good-manners* are taken as a whole, given an *-ed,* and used as modifiers.

Two most important and useful types of such modifiers transformed from phrases are worth studying:—

"Adj.+N.+*ed*"	bob-haired girl
moderate-sized house	red-haired woman
good-mannered man	smooth-tongued fellow

good-hearted people
seven-hilled city
three-legged cat (三脚猫)
eight-legged essay (八股文)
nine-headed bird (九头鸟)
evil-minded man
swell-headed fellow
bow-legged child
three-storied building
round-eyed innocent
chicken-hearted fellow
clean-minded man
able-bodied men
self-starting machine

"X + Vb.-*ing*, or -*ed*"

(a) hair-raising stunts
blood-curdling story
heart-rending problem
flesh-eating animal
awe-inspiring appearance
body-building food
story-telling contest
peace-loving people

(b) frost-bitten flowers
thunder-struck face
famine-stricken district
God-forsaken sinner
storm-tossed ship

(c) smoky-looking room
cheap-looking dress
deep-sunken well
slow-going boat
high-sounding speech

It is quite clear that in both cases, both of the hyphened members are taken as a whole to modify the following word. Thus *nine-headed bird* really means *nine-headed bird* (=a bird with nine heads) and not *nine headed-birds*. *Headed-bird* would make just as little sense as *raising stunts* or *curdling story*. In the second group formed with vbb., we have under (a) vbb.+their objects, (b) vbb.+their logical subjects, and (c) vbb. with complements.

(a) hair-raising stunts = stunts that raise your hair.
(b) frost-bitten flowers = flowers bitten *by* frost.
(c) smoky-looking room = a room that looks smoky.

Because the room looks *smoky*, and the well is sunken *deep* (*smoky* modifying *room*, and *deep* modifying *well*), we do not say "*smokily*-looking room" or "*deeply* sunken well."

Exercise 70. (A) Try to turn all the above phrase-modifiers into phrases or clauses following the modified words.

(B) Transform the following phrases or clauses into phrase, modifiers preceding the modified words:—

1. A crook *with a double face.*
2. A chair *with three legs.*
3. A house *with five rooms.*
4. A boy *with a round face*
5. My brother *who uses his left hand more than his right hand.*
6. The quinine pills *coated with sugar.*
7. Cigarettes *with cork tips.*
8. Sticks *with golden handles.*
9. A man *with a cool head.*
10. A young man *with a hot head.*
11. That child *who looks sleepy.*
12. A machine *for cutting paper.*
13. A machine *for rolling cigarettes.*
14. A device *for saving money.*
15. A policy *that shares the profits of the company.*
16. A man *who is educated by himself.*
17. A people *abiding by the law.*
18. A person *who means well.*
19. A wall *which is painted dark.*
20. Old age *which is approaching fast.*
21. The habit *of telling the truth.*
22. A country *torn by war.*
23. A nation *that drinks tea.*
24. People *who go to church.*
25. Shoes *made by hand,* or *made by machine.*

9.27. Nouns and Verbs as Modifiers.—Nn. and vbb. are usually words modified by others. It is not so uncommon, however, to find nn. and vbb. acting as modifiers themselves. Examples of nn. as modifiers are:—

I *kind of* admire him (admire him *in a way*).
I was *a sort of* tired and disgusted with the whole business.
I *sort of* pitied him.
He was *way* above the others.
He was standing *miles* off from the place.
The husband and wife are *a world* apart as human beings.
Edison says that Henry Ford is sometimes happy, but he is never happy *a billion dollars' worth.*
This cloth is *thirty-six inches* wide.

I don't care *a twopence* what you do with it.

I don't care *a rap* (*a bit*) about it.

A child may say to her mother, "I love my sister *a little bit,* and love you *a whole big balloon.*"

This is *twenty-five cents* above the usual price.

He was *three times* older than his "uncle."

I am coming *next week.*

I am going *this Thursday.*

That was *something* awful, *something* great (here used in the sense of "*indeed* awful," etc.).

The picture was *nothing* wrong (meaning *not at all* wrong; in some constructions, we find even *nothing* plus a participle, as "*nothing* daunted," meaning *not at all* daunted).

Go *one* better (American slang=go *one step* or *one degree* further).

You haven't *the ghost of* a chance (=a ghostly chance).

He had *a hell of* a time (=hellish time).

That *rascal of* a fellow (=rascally fellow).

That *shiftless, sin-smelling drunkard of* a husband (=husband who is a drunkard).

You will catch *a death of* a cold (=a deadly cold).

It will be seen that in the last five examples, the first n. really modifies the second n. and is thus its logical modfier, although grammatically the second n. seems to modify the first. Thus in *hell of a time,* logically *hell* modifies *time,* while grammatically *of a time* modifies *hell.*

Vbb., because of their very nature, are very seldom used as modifiers. This is because, when they are used as modifiers, they generally take the form of a participle or an infinitive phrase, and these will be studied in the following sections. When they are not participles or infinitives, they generally have a subject expressed or understood, and this makes it difficult

for them to act as modifiers. There are, however, some cases where an independent clause with a finite vb. has become amalgamated into an adv., as in the following:—

Maybe you are mistaken; *maybe* I can do it (from independent clause *it may be*, meaning *perhaps*).

I will go away temporarily, *say* (from *let us say*), for three weeks, and then come back.

Bring him in here, *willy-nilly* (from *will he, nill he=whether he likes it or not*).

The words *please* and *suppose* retain still clearly the force of an imperative vb. in *Please ring the bell* and *Suppose he won't consent*, but are coming dangerously near to being advv. in—

Will you *please* do that? (Cf. "Will you *kindly* do that?")

Suppose we go to bed. (in imperative, as a formula of proposal)

Also, there are sound-descriptive words, like *pop, crash, bang,* which are somewhat different from usual vbb. in character, but which are both used as vbb. and as advv.

[*As vb.*]	*Pop* the question (=propose marriage)/*pop in and out* (=go or put suddenly)/*pop* the pistol.
[*As adv.*]	*Pop* goes the weasel (name of a country dance)/Something inside there goes *pop* (=breaks with a pop).
[*As vb.*]	*Bang* the door/Doors *bang*.
[*As adv.*]	Hit him *bang* in the face/He fell *bang* on the floor.
[*As vb.*]	*Crash* through the gate/The whole building *crashed* down.
[*As adv.*]	A piece of stone came *crash* through the window.

It may also be noticed that the word *let* in *let alone* (=*not to speak of*) is often used in a place where a participle or an infinitive would seem to be required:—

He cannot unify his own province, *let alone* unifying the whole country (really *we will let alone* the question of, etc.)

Phrase and Clause Modifiers

9.30. Phrase and Clause Modifiers. So far, we have been considering modifiers that precede the words they modify, together with the relationship between such word-modifiers. Now, we shall study modifiers that follow the words they modify and these are principally phrases and clauses. These are **the Infinitive Phrase, the Participial Phrase, the Prepositional Phrase,** and **the Relative Clause** and their modifications. Finally, we shall go on to study the **Predicate Modifiers,** which are generally words again, and not phrases or clauses. This will conclude our study of the important function of modification.

The Infinitive Phrase as Modifier

9.31. The Infinitive Phrase as Modifier.—The infinitive is one of the commonest forms used in English. We have already seen it used as a noun phrase in § 2.30. Here we shall study its function as a modifier. The main types are five:—

(a) Something *to do,* a book *to read* (as adj.)
(b) Came *to tell you,* began *to see* (to complete the meaning of some preceding vb.).
(c) Brave enough *to go,* too poor *to pay* (to complete the meaning of some preceding adj.).
(d) *To be sure, to tell you the truth* (as an independent or absolute phrase in a sentence).
(e) Ask him *to come,* allow him *to stay* (modifying the object).

The types "b" and "e" are strictly both predicate modifiers, but for the sake of convenience, "b" will be studied here first, while "e" will come under § 9.70.

Examples for study and practice follow:—

(a) These include the English equivalents of Chinese phrases like 有事可做，无书可读，有人做伴，有功课要预备，etc.

Something *to do, to see, to talk about, to read.*
Nothing *to do, to see, to eat, to drink.*
Nobody *to play with, to talk to, to appreciate.*
Somebody *to encourage you, to keep you company, to understand your troubles, to be your friend and adviser, to lend you money.*
You have everything *to gain* and nothing *to lose* by going to see him.

I have a story *to tell you.*	No money *to spend.*
A lesson *to prepare.*	A family *to feed.*
A lesson *to copy.*	A brother *to educate.*
Some work *to do.*	A question *to ask.*
A new world *to conquer.*	A request *to make.*
A desire *to learn.*	Ability *to talk.*
No desire *to study.*	Mind *to study.*
No chance *to see him.*	Power *to give.*
Readiness *to act.*	Permission *to go.*
Money *to buy.*	Will *to try.*
No time *to wait.*	Opportunity *to see.*

Exercise 71. Translate these into Chinese and then back into English again. This may be done by yourself in the form of writing, or with the help of the teacher or some other students giving the Chinese equivalents. Then make sentences with these material, or form new phrases with the following as the words to be modified:

no chance, no time, no opportunity, ability, desire, nothing, something.

(b) When we say *try to see him*, the infinitive phrase *to see him* obviously helps to complete the meaning of the principal vb. *try*. Inasmuch as the infinitive here completes the meaning of the principal vb., it may be called a **complement** of that vb. As it comes directly within the predicate itself and modifies the principal vb., it may be also called a **predicate modifier** of the vb. The English language abounds with such idiomatic expressions, and they include not only vbb. in the active voice, but also vbb. in the passive voice and adjj.

(*Vb.*)	Begin to		Prepare to ....
	Continue to		Hasten to ....
	Cease to	(*Pass.*)	Be pleased to ....
	Help to		Be told to ....
	Seem to		Be surprised to ....
	Hope to		Be disappointed to ....
	Wish to		Be interested to ....
	Neglect to		Be allowed to ....
	Forget to		Is said to ....
	Remember to		Is believed to ....
	Intend to		Is understood to ....
	Plan to		Is supposed to ....
	Want to		Is considered to ....
	Care to		Is requested to ....
	Dare to		Is destined to ....
	Decide to		Is prepared to ....
	Determine to	(*Adj.*)	Be careful to ....
	Offer to		Be foolish to ....
	Have come to		Be crazy to ....
	Propose to		Be afraid to ....

Be anxious to .... Be quick to understand.
Be desirous to .... Be slow to act.

Exercise 72. Try to expand these into complete sentences orally, and see if you can add new ones to the list.

(c) With adjj. like *enough, sufficient* and advv. like *too, enough, so,* the meaning is left incomplete without the infinitive phrase following them.

He is *too* proud *to* learn. Be good *enough to* tell me.
He is *too* lazy *to* study. Be *so* kind *as to* tell me.
This is *too* good *to* be true.
This happiness is *too* great *to* last.
We have sufficient money (*or* money sufficient) *to* last us a week.
He was fool *enough to* tell him everything.
He is not man *enough to* confess his mistake.
The colours of the dress are *too* loud *to* be in accordance with good taste.
It is never *too* late *to* mend.
He came *too* late *to* see the opening of the show.
I am now old *enough to* see the truth of it.
He is old *enough to* be your father.

Exercise 73. Complete the following sentences:—

The child is big enough to ....
He was not brave enough to ....
The insult was too deep to ....
The composition was too long to ....
I have not time enough to ....
People are so foolish as to ....
China is too big to ....

(d) Finally, we have infinitive phrases inserted in the

middle of a sentence to modify the meaning of the whole statement. Examples are:—

To begin with, you started the quarrel.
To make a long story short, he was arrested and put in prison.
To tell you the truth, I don't want to marry her.
This, *to be sure,* is not your fault.
To be perfectly frank with you, you can be a successful barber.
Strange to say, we met again at Chefoo.
And after the husband died, the concubine acted like the lord of the family and husband of the wife, *so to speak.*

Exercise 74. Make sentences expressing the meaning contained in Chinese absolute phrases like: 说也奇怪，老实说，老实对你讲，总括一句。

9.32. The Split Infinitive, etc.—As can be seen from the above examples, the vb. in the infinitive can take on modifiers and objects like other vbb. E.g.—

To tell *you the truth* (*you* indirect object, and *truth* direct object).
To last us *one week* (*one week* adv. phrase of time, modifying *last*).

The infinitive can be in the active or passive voice, and can be in the perfect or imperfect tense:—

Active. A house *to let.* (Owner has house to let.)
Passive. A house *to be let.* (House is to be let).
Perfect. He seems *to have read* a great many books.
Imperfect. He seems *to be working* all the time.

Now, with regard to the modifiers of the infinitive, when we put a modifier between *to* and the vb., we have what is usually called a **split infinitive.**

To come *quickly* (*Normal.*)
To *quickly* come. (*Split Infinitive.*)

There are many "non-splitters" among the grammarians who absolutely will not countenance a split infinitive, like *to quickly come.* But there are just as many people, and among them good writers, who take care to consciously and deliberately flaunt the rule. The plain truth is, however, that the only determining factors should be: **clearness** of meaning and the **natural rhythm** of the language. Usually, a split infinitive breaks the natural rhythm of the sentence, as in—

Tell him to *quickly* come.

But—

Tell him *quickly* to come.

is just as bad, because the rhythm is not better, and the meaning is not clear (ambiguous): *quickly* may as well be taken to modify *tell* as to modify *come.* The only clear and natural way is to say—

Tell him to come *quickly.*

Study also the following alternatives:—

(1) He has begun to *really* understand it.
(2) He has begun *really* to understand it.
(3) He has begun to understand it *really.*

Form "1" is best, because it is clearest and most natural. Form "2" is natural, but slightly ambiguous; while form "3" puts too much emphasis on *really* by giving it the final position.

The fact is, all advv. have their normal or natural positions, and any attempt to remove them to a new position either spoils the natural rhythm of the sentence, or tends to give the advv. an undue emphasis.

Exercise 75. Decide where the advv. (in italics) are to be placed in the following sentences, and find out your own reason for doing so.

1. We need/to *further* strengthen/our position/.
2. His army seemed *completely* to/have been/destroyed/.
3. The principles will have *boldly* to/be/followed/.
4. The letter ought *carefully* to/be/written/.
5. He was able *immediately* to/perceive/the importance of the suggestion.
6. His action seemed *largely* to/have been/dictated/by selfish motives/.
7. Such mistakes are *absolutely* to/be/avoided/.

9.33. Need to, Dare to.—We know that words like *can, will, may, must, shall* (called **auxiliaries**, or helping vbb.) are followed directly by vbb. in the infinitive with the *to* omitted, e. g., *can go, will go, must go,* etc. There are two vbb. in the English language which are becoming auxiliaries, but which have not developed so far as the other words. That is to say, they are used exactly like *must, can,* etc. in questions and negative sentences, but not in affirmative sentences:—

	Need	*Dare*	(*Can,* etc.)
Ques.	Need he go?	Dare he go?	(Can he go?)
Neg.	He need not go.	He dare not go.	(He cannot go.)
Aff.	He need*s* *to* go.	He dares *to* go.	(He can go.)

In the affirmative sentence, we add an *-s* in the 3rd person sing., and we do not omit the *to*. Besides *Dare he go?/Need he go?* we can also say *Does he dare to go?/Does he need to go?* And besides *He dare not go/He need not go,* we can say

He does not need to go/He does not dare to go.

Notice, however, that *to* is usually omitted in the following negative sentences, even though the phrase *dare not* or *need not* does not directly occur:—

No one *need* know about it.
No one *dare* say a word about it.
You *need* tell no one.
Under no circumstances *dare* he betray the secret.
I *need* hardly tell you that... (*hardly*=almost not)

The word *please* sometimes drops, and sometimes retains, the *to* behind it:—

Please ring the bell.	Please don't (*or* do not) forget.
Please *to* ring the bell.	Please not *to* forget.

The words *make, bid,* etc. will be treated under § 9.91.

Exercise 76. Transform the following orally into negative sentences and questions, either with *do* or without *do,* over and over again until you can do it quickly without mistake.

1. You dare to go alone.
2. They dare to tell me that.
3. You need to be so careful.
4. We needed to show him everything.
5. We need to come too.
6. He needs to be reminded of it.

(NOTE.—The above sentences are formed for practice only, and are not quite idiomatic. In affirmative sentences, *dare to* is used, but always stressed, while *need to* is seldom used, its idiomatic form being *have to* (须) and not *need to. Need* in the affirmative is usually used in constructions like *need something, he needs a book, a pen,* etc.)

The Participial Phrase

9.40. The Participial Phrase as Modifier.—The participial phrase is one of the commonest constructions in English, and yet many Chinese students have learnt its name without knowing how to use it in sentences. The reason is that they have not learnt to distinguish between vbb. expressing an **action** and vbb. expressing a **state or condition.** This is best illustrated in the sentence: 我站在那儿等着他(I *stood* there, *waiting* for him) and its variations. It will be seen in the following that the Chinese particle *cho* (着) serves the same purpose as the ending *-ing* in participles to indicate a condition:—

我站在那儿等着他.	I stood there, *waiting* for him.
我站着等他.	I waited there *standing*.
我坐着等他.	I waited there *sitting*.

The vb. without *-ing* is the principal vb. and the vb. in *-ing* (participle) is meant only to help describe a condition. The participial phrase is therefore subordinate in relation to the main clause, serving as a modifier only. One should learn to subordinate the vb. describing a condition and put it into the participial form. One could say "I *stood* and *waited*," but it would be better English to say "I *stood waiting* there"; if it is intended to describe the standing as a condition, one should say, "I *waited* there, *standing* (in the rain)." The most common uses of the participial phrase are to describe a **manner,** a **cause** or **motive,** and to indicate **general relationships.**

(1) Describing manner.—

Making three circles with his chop-sticks, he invited his guests

to help themselves.

Paying no attention to what the others said, he went ahead.

Bru hing everybody aside, he pushed his way into the mob and kissed the drowned girl.

Shouting at the top of his voice, he said to them...

The child returned home, *stretching* both his hands to his mamma, and *dropping* his satchel.

The old man came, *mumbling* something in an undertone.

(2) **Describing cause or motive.**—The words *think, believe, mistake, hear,* etc., when used as participles, usually describe *a state of mind,* and therefore help to indicate or explain the motive of action.—

Knowing that the child's case was hopeless, he did not consult the doctor but the priest.

Seeing that there was no more hope, the parents sat quietly in despair.

Thinking that Chinese medicine might help, they sent for an old Chinese doctor.

Believing what the Chinese doctor said, they had high hopes again.

I left Shanghai last Monday, *intending* to spend a month in Japan (or: *intending* never to come back).

Frightened by the news, he came back.

Failing to carry out his plan, he bought a steamship ticket and sailed for Australia.

Coming from an old French stock, he had his ordinary share of pride in the mother country.

(3) **Indicating general relationships.**—Participial phrases used for this purpose generally stand at the beginning of a sentence, as this helps to make the general relationship of the sentence clearer.

Coming back to our first topic, I may say...

Speaking of Chinese art, there are many things waiting to be written about it.

Writing in the Fourteenth Edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica,* he pointed out...

Having made this point clear, I may go on to...

In this connexion, it may be mentioned that the participles *concerning* and *regarding,* originally belonging to this class and serving this purpose, are now generally regarded as prepp. *Granting, providing* and *granted, provided* are used indifferently as conjj.—

Regarding your note of the 14th, I beg to inform you that...

Concerning the plan for the new school building, it has been proposed that...

Granting (or *Granted*) that he didn't know, he should have written to inquire about it.

I will go, *provided* (or *providing*) you send a car.

Concerning the difference between present and past participles, see § 2.33.

Exercise 77. (A) Form sentences with the following participles describing manner, cause, or motive:—

hearing that	leaving a letter
seeing that	planning to
mistaking the noise	advancing three steps
wishing to	waving his hand
kneeling on the ground	encouraged by
lying on his face	surprised by
desiring to	drenched through with rain
having finished his work	supported by
determined to	exhausted through work
frightened by	having been told that

(B) Learn to subordinate some of the vbb., turning them into descriptive participles:—

1. We *sat* and *talked* and *forgot* that the messenger had been waiting outside all the while.
2. He *disappeared* early in the morning and *left* no trace of himself.
3. He *came* home at last, and *believed* that his fiancée was still living.
4. *Correct* these sentences and *change* the vbb. if they are wrong.
5. He *sat* and *waited* there and *read* a book.
6. He *turned* to me and *asked* me a hard question.
7. He *asked* the question and *pointed* his finger at me.
8. He *was supported* by thirty young students and *rushed* on to the stage.

(C) Translate the following into English, using participles for the underlined words:—

1. 佣妇回来,手里提着一篮的菜。
2. 她还是不肯再嫁,希望她的前夫一旦能够回转念头。
3. 他昨夜还预备功课,以为（误认）今天为星期一。
4. 他坐在案前,用一枝红铅笔改作文。
5. 他知道（或听见）今天我拿到薪水,又来向我借钱。
6. 他们俩一夜不睡,一直谈到天亮。
7. 他答应了,说事做完就来。

9.41. Misconnected Participles.—Great care should be taken with regard to the word (n. or pron.) to be modified by the participle. The participle introducing a participial phrase ought to modify the subject of the main clause, to which the participial phrase is attached. Thus, in—

Having finished my lesson, I went home.

the participle *having finished* modifies the subject of the main

clause, *I*. It is, however, very easy to connect it up with a subject which it logically cannot modify. One might easily say:

> *Having finished* my lesson, the teacher let me go home first.

This is wrong because it was not the teacher who had finished the lesson. One ought to say, therefore—

> *Having finished* my lesson, I was allowed by the teacher to go home first.

Exercise 78. Study the following examples, and see why the participles are wrongly connected. When it is difficult to make the correct participial construction, other forms may be used, e.g., "As I have finished my lesson," or "When he was three years old."

1. *Being* three years old, his *father* died.
2. Not *knowing* the strange town, the *guide* showed me the different places worth visiting.
3. *Having punished* them enough already, cannot the *prisoners* be set free now?
4. *Being desirous* to settle the accounts, will *you* please send me the amount due by return post?
5. *Being* a movie fan, *Colman* and *Barrymore* are his favourites.
6. *Being* a despotic ruler, the *people* disliked him.

9.42. Absolute Participial Phrase.—A participial phrase, as we have seen, always begins with a participle which modifies the subject of the main clause. It is thus dependent on the main clause. We may have, however, a participial phrase containing its own subject, as follows—

> **He** *being* a despotic ruler, the people disliked him.

Mr. Watson *being* too weak to attend the meeting, I went in his stead.

Such constructions are called **absolute participial phrases,** by which we mean that the participle is not directly connected with the subject of the main clause, although the phrase itself is still in a subordinate relation to the latter. Further examples are—

Weather *permitting,* we shall go for a picnic on Monday.
God *willing,* I shall take care of your mother till the end of her days.
All **things** *considered,* he was the best boy in class.
There were a hundred seventy-two of them, **all** *told.*
There were a hundred seventy-two of them, the spoilt **ones** *excepted.*
You had better all go back, **Pan** *taking* up his old work and **you** *continuing* yours.
I paid for my friend, **he** *happening* to be out of pocket.
Then we went over the top, the **captain** *leading* the attack himself.
The **accused** *being* under sixteen years of age, we should not send him to prison, but to the reformatory.
There *being* no **evidence** against him, and **he** *denying* the **charge,** we could do nothing.
Your last **check** *being dishonoured* by the bank, I shall have to ask you for another one.
I should not advise you to go to Hangchow now, **this** *being* the rainy season of the year.

Notice that in most of these examples, other longer expressions might be substituted, e.g., "if weather permits," "if you take everything into consideration."

It should be noted, however, that in the case of partici-

ples expressing **general relationships** (see "3" above), the participial phrase really modifies the general intent of the whole sentence, and not the subject of the main clause only. Hence, the following examples are correct:—

(*Talking* of the football match), who won?
(*Granting* that B—— College was defeated), were their men to blame?
(*Granting* his honesty), he may be mistaken in his enthusiasm.
(*Allowing* for minor deficiencies), the play was on the whole a success.
(*Coming* to the question of the proper marrying age), did not my father marry at twenty-nine?
There are thirteen left, (not *counting* the spoilt ones).

In all the above examples, it will be seen that the participial phrase modifies the main statement as a whole.

The Prepositional Phrase

9.50. The Prepositional Phrase.—Of all the kinds of phrases in English, the prepositional phrase is by far the most commonly used. Some examples will suffice to show that a great number of the commonest phrases are of this class.

at first	*at* the meeting	*by* chance (偶然)
at last	*at* Shanghai	*by* luck (碰巧)
at least	*at* great cost	*on* purpose (故意)
at once	*at* me, you, him, etc.	*after* all (到底)
at the same time	*with* me, him, it, etc.	*in* case (倘若)
at the beginning	*by* her, him, it, etc.	*by* turn (轮流)
at the end	*through* us, you, them, etc.	*in* fact (其实)
at this price	*for* her, you, me, etc.	*in* time (及时)
at this time	(cook) *by* gas, electricity, etc.	*for* example (例如)
at this place	(go) *by* train, boat, etc.	*above* all (首先)

This is also easily seen from the fact that prepositions, like *in, at, on, for, to, down, up, before, after, by, through, with, without, against,* etc. are among the commonest words in English, and that every time a preposition is used, it forms a prepositional phrase (see § 2.11 "6"). Besides the above, one should also take account of the following extremely common compound prepositions:—

as to, as for	in view of	for fear of
on account of	in case of	with reference to
instead of	in connexion with	with (in) regard to
in spite of	by means of	in accordance with
in place of	by way of	on behalf of

For further examples of the uses of prepositions, see § 2.18, Exercise 5.

Exercise 79. Make sentences with the prepositions and prepositional phrases mentioned above.

9.51. Prepositions for Brevity.—Compare the following sentences:—

(a) He died *of malaria.*
He died *because he had malaria.*

(b) He was convicted *of murder.*
He was convicted *as a man who had committed murder.*

It will be seen at once that the great advantage in using prepositional phrases is that they make the sentences shorter and therefore neater.

Exercise 80. Make the following sentences shorter by using prepositional phrases in place of the clauses in italics. Use nn. or vbb. in *-ing* after the prepp. suggested in brackets.

1. There was a row *when they were holding the meeting*. **(at, during)**
2. The student was punished *because he came late*. **(for)**
3. He could not climb the mountain *because he had heart trouble*. **(on account of)**
4. The big Swedish concern collapsed *when Krueger died.* **(at)**
5. He went all the same, *although I advised him not to.* **(in spite of)**
6. He went away *and did not say a word.* **(without)**
7. He returned home, *taking a train.* **(by)**
8. I could not come *because I was ill.* **(on account of)**
9. *As Reuter has reported,* the Japanese have seized the customs revenue at Dairen. **(according to)**

9.52. Prepositions at End.—In idiomatic and colloquial English, as distinguished from pedantic writing, the prepositions are very often left at the end of a sentence or clause. "He is the man you are looking *for*" is more idiomatic than "He is the man *for whom* you are looking." This is because, in English, the prepositions form with their preceding vbb. or adjj. definite phrases with a very definite meaning, like *look for*. In spite of what many grammarians say, a truly natural and idiomatic English style cannot get along without often allowing prepositions to stand at the end of sentences or clauses. The following examples of extremely common and idiomatic sentences will suffice to show this English tendency.

What are you doing that *for*?
What are you looking *at*?
That will give you something to think *about*.
You can never tell what this will lead *to*.
Do you think he is a man you can depend *on*?

People in famine districts will eat anything they can lay their hands *on*. ("Anything *on which* they can lay their hands" would sound pedantic here.)

That depends on what they are cut *with*. (Not "That depends on *with what* they are cut".)

Do you know who you are speaking *to*? (To say "Do you know *to whom* you are speaking" would lose the whole force of the question.)

Note that in order to avoid leaving prepositions at the end in the above sentences, phrases like *for whom, with which about which* will have to be used, and these constructions are always awkward and roundabout.

9.53. But, Than.—"But" and "than" are sometimes used, even by good writers, as prepositions followed by pronn. in the objective case, as follows:—

All *but me* had fled.
No one wishes it more *than us*.

Now both these words may be used as conjj., and therefore *but I* and *than we* could also be used. As a rule, one should generally avoid using the objective case, where *but* and *than* could be used as conjj. with pronn. in the nominative case. In modern English, the only surely correct usage of *than* as prep. with a pron. in the objective case following is in the phrase *than whom*, as in—

The occasion called for a man of great wisdom and courage like Mr. R—, *than whom* no one could suggest a better candidate for the presidency.

As a conj., *than* may have a nominative or objective pron.

following, according to the circumstances. In the sentence, "They treated him worse *than her*." the meaning is "worse *than* they treated *her*." On the other hand, "They treated him worse *than she*" would mean "worse *than she* treated him."

9.54. Some Special Uses of English Prepositions.—A few peculiar uses of some prepositions may be noted here. The use of a preposition in any particular place is purely determined by custom and usage, and different languages often use different prepositions to express the same meaning (see § 6.61). Following are some special uses of English prepp. worth noting:—

With, for descriptive phrases.

> He came home a disappointed man, *with* his business ruined, his money gone, his health broken and his self-confidence visibly shaken.
>
> *With* one of his legs gone, he was still able to go about visiting his friends.
>
> I saw a woman walking in the street, *with* a baby in her breast and another child holding her hand.

With or **for** + *all*, meaning "in spite of."

> *With all* his experience and technical training, he could not build that bridge alone.
>
> *For all* his thrift and care in spending money, he still remains a poor man.
>
> *For all* his charity, Rockefeller took more from others than he has ever given back to the world.
>
> Mr. F— may be the owner of this property, *for all* I know (here in a slightly different sense = "as far as I know").

Under, denoting an incomplete process.

The bridge *under* construction; the question *under* consideration; the patient *under* treatment; the project *under* consideration.

To, expressing effect on a person's mind.

To my great surprise, he turned up at the last moment.
He failed to turn up, *to* our great disappointment.
We found, *to* our great delight, that the news wasn't true.

In, describing some part or detail affected.

He was blind *in* the eye; injured *in* the knee.
Chang is weak *in* algebra.

On, meaning "immediately after" or "as the result of."

On arriving at the scene, I found....
On examination, I found....
On second thought, I decided to change the subject.
On hearing the news, I went to see the manager.

On, suggesting a temporary state.

On the move; *on* fire; *on* strike; *on* leave, *on* his best behaviour; *on* good terms with.

Through, meaning "by" but suggesting effort.

He obtained the job *through* my influence (help).
It was *through* (because of) you that we failed.
That was all done *through* (because of) jealousy (ignorance, carelessness, etc.).

Exercise 81. Make sentences showing the use of the prepositions mentioned above.

The Relative Clause

9.60. The Relative Clause.—The relative clause does not exist in the Chinese language, but is one of the most characteristic constructions of English and its allied languages. A relative clause is a clause introduced by a relative pron. or relative adv. The essence of a relative pron. or adv. is that, while it serves its usual grammatical function in the clause, it acts at the same time as a conjunction to connect the clause with some preceding word, called its "antecedent."

The man (*who* came here this morning) was my school friend.

The rel. pron. *who* serves as a regular pronominal subject in the relative clause *who* to *morning,* but it acts also as a conjunction connecting the clause with its antecedent *man.* The whole relative clause is used to modify the antecedent *man.*

In the sentence—

We came to the room (*where* the emperor used to study and talk with the great scholars).

we have the rel. adv. *where* serving as an adv. in the clause *where* to *scholars,* and at the same time acting as a conj. to connect up the clause with the antecedent *room.*

The rel. pronn. are *who* (*whom, whose*), *which, that, as* (preceded by *such, the same,* or *as*) and *but* (preceded by *no one,* etc.).

The relative advv. are *where, when* and *why.*

The use of these words will be studied in the following sections.

9.61. "That" as a Defining Rel. Pron.—It has already been stated in § 4.61 that, of the three rel. pronn. *who, which* and *that, who* is used for persons, *which* for things, and *that* for both. There is a difference, however, between *that* and *which* in their usage, namely, that *that* is "defining" and *which* is commentative. It is a difference which is hard always to observe and which is not always observed. But the observing of this distinction would always insure correctness of idiom, besides making the sentences clearer in meaning.

(A) This is the house *that* Jack built.
(B) Jack built this house, *which* was used for keeping malt.

In sentence A, the rel. clause defines, or limits, the meaning of the antecedent *house*. The meaning of the main clause "this is the house" would be left undefined, if the clause "that Jack built" were not added. But in sentence B, the main clause—"Jack built this house"—is quite complete in meaning, and the adding of the relative clause *which* to *malt* does not in any way limit its meaning, but only attaches a comment to it. The function of *that* in sentence A is, therefore, a "definig" or "demonstrative" of "determinative" function, serving to point out which one, while the function of *which* in sentence B is "non-defining" or "commentative," and often purely "descriptive." Further examples follow—

(A) This is the rat *that* ate the malt *that* lay in the house *that* Jack built.
The doctor examines the rat *that* carries the flea *that* harbours the germ *that* infects the poor Indian.
She was the first Chinese woman *that* (*who*) ever took a doctor's degree at Harvard.
The man *that* you saw this morning is my uncle.

It is something *that* can't be done in a few days.

(B) He is preaching Confucianism, *which* is steadily losing its influence today.

Even if you could get the money, *which* isn't as easy as you think, you still would have to find the man to do it.

So we were forced to stop at the little village, *which* was against our original plan.

More and more people are beginning to learn English, *which* is becoming very popular in China.

He asked me to explain to him the art of writing poetry, *which* cannot be taught.

Many English writers use *which* in the defining sense (Group A) also, but to use *that* in the commentative sense (Group B) would be decidedly wrong. Notice that in the B group, the relative clause could very well be left out without greatly affecting the sentence, whereas in the A group, the omission of the rel. clause would make the sentence meaningless.

The distinction between *that* and *who* is still less easy to observe, *who* being used both as a defining and a commentative word, while *that* is still used for defining only.

The man *who* came this morning (defining) was my school friend.

I met Mr. B—, *who* seemed to be a very decent fellow (commentative).

Here *that* could be used for *who* in the first sentence, but not in the second sentence.

As a rel. pron., *that* is always unstressed [ðət], while *who* and *which* are usually stressed.

9,62. "Which" as a Commentative Rel. Pron.—This use

has already been illustrated above. "Which" is thus often used for passing comments, remarks or personal judgments on various things. The mastery of this construction therefore leads one into one of the secrets of a personal literary style. A writer like Bernard Shaw, who is full of opinions of his own, and has all sorts of comments to make, would use a great number of such commentative phrases or clauses. On the other hand, a man who usually does not have much comment to make would not need them, and consequently his sentences would have a somewhat bald effect. Below are some more examples of parenthetical remarks or comments introduced by *which*.

The League of Nations, *which* is a great organization for the development of oratory, etc.

The Japanese violated the integrity of the Chinese Maritime Customs, *which* is the only support for Chinese credit at home and abroad.

Exercise 82. (A) Study the following clauses and see what sentences could be constructed to incorporate them.

which isn't true
which isn't quite exact
which is a fact
which is a pure waste of time
which is a palpably false statement (a lie)
which is all you want
which was more than she had expected
which was an accomplishment of great merit
which might terrify less courageous people
which is all nonsense
which does more harm than good
which cannot be learnt from books
which is a question of opinion (i. e., not of fact)

which is something that cannot be taught

which is very questionable

which is the desire of her parents

(B) Translate the above examples and the sentences you make into Chinese, and see how often such parenthetical remarks will have to be put in separate sentences. Compare the translation of sentences with the *that* clauses in §9.61.

9.63. "Which" Modifying Statements.—In the two examples,—

> Yenching, *which* is probably the best university in China, etc.,
> His wife wasn't beautiful, *which* was a sin he could not forgive,

which has the n. *Yenching* as its proper antecedent in the first sentence, but in the second, the antecedent of *which* is not the adj. *beautiful* but the whole statement that "*she wasn't beautiful,*" because it was this fact that her husband could not forgive. Another example should suffice—

> If she pulls through the third week, *which* is quite probable, she will be out of danger.

It is not the *week* which is "probable," but the fact that she may pull through the third week.

9.64. In Which, from Whom, etc.—It is most easy to make mistakes in employing the *which* and *who* constructions. The thing that should constantly be borne in mind is that every rel. clause must have such a perfect construction in itself that it could be turned into an independent sentence.

Thus, the clause *which is quite probable* may easily be turned into a perfect sentence, *This is quite probable*. But a sentence like—

We came to the room *which* the emperor used to work.

is wrong, because we cannot say *The emperor used to work the room,* but have to say *work in the room*. Hence the sentence should read—

We came to the room *in which* the emperor used to work.

Following are some correct examples:—

I got a letter yesterday from my sister, *from whom* I had not heard for a long time. (I had not heard *from* her.)
We must work for our country, *which* we all love and *in which* we all believe. (We believe *in* our country.)
He ate a lot of indigestible food immediately after his recovery from typhoid, *than which* there could be nothing more dangerous.
At New York, he met the great composer, *with whom* he had been on most intimate terms years ago when they were studying together in Germany.
We met Mr. Wilkinson, the great novelist, *of whom* I had heard such a great deal.

Exercise 83. Connect up the following pairs of sentences:—

1. I brought the girl to see the lawyer. To this lawyer, the father had entrusted the care of his daughter.
2. I brought the girl to see Mr. Yang. Through Mr. Yang, she obtained a new position.
3. Then we changed over to the abolition of extra-territoriality in China. A great deal has been written about this (topic).

9.65. Which...It, Which...Them, etc.—Another frequent source of trouble comes from the writer forgetting whether *which* is the subject or the object in the rel. clause. Some common mistakes, with their proper corrections, are given below:—

1. We began to play billiards, *which* my friend had not played *it* for a long time. (*It* should be dropped, because *which* is already the object of *played* in the clause.)
2. The young bride was confronted with a series of new problems, *which* no one had told her about *them*. (*Them* to be dropped: *which* is already the object of *about*.)
3. They showed the two men a letter, *which*, when we had studied carefully, seemed to be written by a woman. (Say "when we had studied *it* carefully," as *which* is serving as the subject of *seemed*.)
4. I gave him a picture *which*, upon looking at, he recognized it to be that of his dead brother. (Say "upon looking at *it*," as *which* is serving as the object of *recognized*: *it* after *recognized* to be dropped, because *which* is already the object of the verb in the clause.)

9.66. That...to, That...for, etc.—The characteristic of *that* is that we cannot put a prep. before it as in the case of *which* (*in which, for which*). Such prepp. are therefore regularly left at the end of the rel. clause.

The people *that* you meet *with* are not always the people you wish to meet. (*Meet with* expresses a casual or unintentional meeting; *to meet a person* expresses an intentional meeting, as *to meet him at the station*.)

There is no sense in continuing a friendship *that* one no longer cares *for.*

I began to realize the financial situation *that* he had come *to.*

The subject *that* every one was talking *about;* the piano that had not yet been paid *for,* the debt *that* he is *in*; the person *that* he had referred *to*; the opportunity *that* he had prayed *for*; the missing letter *that* he had been worrying *about, etc.*

9.67. "That" Used for "in Which," "for Which," etc.—*That* may be used instead of *in which, for which,* etc. as a rel. adv. when referring to time, place, way, reason, manner, etc.

The reason *that* I came is, etc. (Better than *for which I came*).

I don't like the way *that* he looks at me. (*That* may be omitted, see following paragraph. *That*=*in which* here.)

You cannot treat King George with the same familiarity *that* (*with which*) you treat your younger brother.

We are in the same position *that* (*in which*) he was a year ago.

The last time *that* I saw him, he was ill in bed.

9.68. "That" Dropped.—In idiomatic English, both spoken and written, the rel. pron, *that* is very often dropped, when it is the object in the rel. clause.

The books (*that*) I like.
The people (*that*) I know.
The poems he writes.
The things he spoke about.
The book you mentioned
The song everybody is singing.
The child you love.
The woman he married.
The flowers she picked yesterday.
The man he promoted.
The business he started.
The car he owned.
The cigar I like.
The money he left behind him.
The class I belong to.

The dropping of *that* in these constructions is entirely in consonance with the general English tendency to shorten or abbreviate all phrase modifiers (see § 9.82).

9.691. "As" as a Rel. Pron.—Besides the regular rel. pronn. *who, which* and *that,* there are two other words which often serve in the same capacity: *as* and *but.* Both these words can act as subjects in the rel. clause and at the same time as conjj. to connect the clause with an antecedent. The peculiarity of these words is that they usually go with certain other preceding words. *As* is usually used in the phrases **such...as, the same...as,** and **as...as.**

> *Such* customers *as* drifted our way were generally strangers from the passing ships. (Subj. of *drifted*)
> There was *such* a confusion *as* might be caused by a theatre panic. (Subj.)
> She did not turn out to be *such* a good travelling companion *as* we had expected. (Obj.)
> *As* many men *as* applied were admitted. (Subj.)
> *As* many men *as* we found were taken up into the ship. (Obj.)
> We took in *as* many men *as* could be accommodated in the small ship. (Subj.)
> He came by *the same* route *as* had been followed by his predecessors. (Subj.)
> A revolution broke out, *such as* no one had seen before. (Obj.)

The use of *as* alone is also quite common:—

> The play, *as* is well known, is based on a famous novel.
> The ex-convict committed crimes again, *as* is usual (*or, as* is to be expected), and was arrested again.
> *As* is often the case; *as* often happens; *as* might be expected (*As* often happens, when the patient is of the nervous type, etc.)

Many nasty things were said about him, *as* have been said about other people.

(NOTE.—Some grammarians have questioned the legitimacy of the above constructions, insisting on putting in another word as the subj., e.g. "as *it* is well known" or "as *nasty things* have been said about other people." Close observation, however, of this particular idiom and of the general tendency of English with regard to modifying clauses does not warrant this view. Such constructions as "as is well known," "as is often the case" are far too common and too well supported by usage to be easily banished from writing; the omission of *it* in *as is well known* is moreover in entire agreement with the peculiarly English tendency to shorten modifying clauses: see § 9.82.)

9.692. "But" as a Rel. Pron.—*But* as a rel. pron. is always preceded by some negative antecedent, usually *no one.* In this connexion, *but* = "who...not," "which...not," "that... not."

There is *no* one *but* knows (=no one who does not know= every one knows) about this affair.

Hardly a man came to the exhibition *but* was surprised by the originality and boldness of his conceptions.

Not a new man entered politics *but* was soon converted into an official of the old type.

There is *no* habit so old *but* may be cured by a strong will.

9.70. Relative Advv. "When," "Where" and "Why."—As a rel. pron. is a conjunctive pron., so a rel. adv. is a conjunctive adv., i.e., it serves as an adv. in the rel. clause, but at the same time connects the clause with an antecedent. Except for this difference, the construction of the rel. clause itself is exactly similar to what we have been studying in the foregoing sections.

Rel. Pron. We saw the **man** *who* was a town broker.
Rel. Adv. We saw the **place** *where* the broker died.

In the second sentence, *where* serves as an adv. modifying *died*.

The place where:—

We had reached a stage *where* it was impossible to go any further.

Business had come to a point *where* increased sales did not mean increased profit.

(*As antecedent-rel. adv. combined*):—

I am *where* I should be.

Send him *where* he will be taken care of.

The time when:—

He deserted her at the time *when* she most needed and deserved his sympathy.

That was the morning *when* we had so many guests in the house.

(*As antecedent-rel. adv. combined*):—

He deserted her *when* she most needed, etc.

Leave *when* you like.

The reason why:—

The reason *why* I came is this.

Let us inquire into the reason *why* he left in such a hurry.

(*As antecedent-rel. adv. combined*):—

I can't understand *why* he left.

Let us inquire *why* he left in such a hurry.

Notice that we practically never say *the manner* (*way*) *how*, but simply *how*, or simply *the way*, or *the manner* (*the way*) *in which*:—

> *The way* (*in which*) he talked to his inferiors was ridiculous, but *the way* (*in which*) he talked to his superiors was disgusting.

Wherein, whereof and wherefore (=*in which, of which, for which reason*) are not in common use today except in pedantic writing, poetry and legal documents, with the exception of *wherefore* as a n. in the phrase *the whys and wherefores*. **Whereby** (=*by which*) is more commonly used.

> We must think of a means *whereby* Manchuria may be recovered by China.

Whenever and **wherever** are used exactly like *when* and *where* in their constructions:—

> Leave *whenever* you like.
> Go *wherever* you like.

9.71. "When Called," "When Resting."—Rel. clauses introduced by *when* and *while* often have their subj. and finite vb. dropped:—

> *When* (you are) *in doubt*, ask for "Capstan."
> You must come *when* (you are) *called*.
> *While* (he was) *talking* with Mr. Elliston, he was interrupted by a loud noise upstairs.
> Listen to good music *whenever* (it is) *possible*.
> You don't want to marry *while* (you are) *studying*.
> *When gambling*, think of your mother, and *when drinking*, think of your wife.
> *When invited* to a stranger's party, do not talk too much.

You cannot carry on a serious conversation *while playing* mah-jong.

Compare similar constructions with the conj. *if*, as, *if any, if possible, if desired* (=*if there is any, if it is possible, if it is desired*).

Review of Phrase and Clause Modifiers

9.80. Phrase and Clause Modifiers Summarized.—The above sections, § § 9.30 to 9.71, cover the most important kinds of phrases and clauses in the English language. They are: the infinitive phrase, the participial phrase, the prepositional phrase and the relative clause.

The **infinitive phrase** may be used to modify a n. ("a *lesson* to learn"), an adj. ("too *proud* to learn"), an adv. ("too *quickly* to be seen"), or a whole statement ("To tell you the truth, *I wasn't there*"). It may also be used as a complement to complete the meaning of a finite verb ("*began* to see").

The participial phrase is always used to modify the subject of the related clause ("*I* came, acting as his representative"). The absolute part. phrase has a subj. which is modified by the participle, and the whole phrase serves to modify the main clause ("*He* being too weak to go, *I went in his stead*").

The **prepositional phrase** may modify a n. ("the *book* on the table"), or a vb. ("He *came* from America"/"On coming back, I *found*, etc.").

The **relative clause** may be introduced by a rel. pron. (*who, which, that*) or a rel. adv. (*where, when, why*). The

rel. pron. or rel. adv. always refers to an antecedent. The antecedent is in most cases a n. ("the *man* who came"), but sometimes it may be a whole statement ("*He says that I didn't care*, which is untrue").

9.81. Post-Nominal Position of Modifiers.—A result of the use of the modifying phrases and clauses mentioned above is that, in English, we often have modifying phrases or clauses coming after the word they modify. With the exception of the participial phrase, which may also come before the word it modifies, all these constructions always come after the word modified.

Inf.	A **book** *to read.*
Part.	A **book** *selling for a dollar a copy.*
Rel.	The **book** *that I like.*
Prep.	The **book** *on the top shelf.*

As the Chinese language depends entirely on word-order for indicating the relationship between modifier and the modified word, this post-nominal position is impossible in Chinese. We may say *the modified word* or *the word modified* in English, but not in Chinese. The Chinese language loses therefore in flexibility in this respect, and the translation of such English modifying phrases into Chinese is often cumbersome and awkward.

Exercise 84. Try to translate the following sentences, and observe the word-order in the Chinese translation.

1. This is the dog that worried the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.
2. It is untrue that I had borrowed three hundred dollars from him at five percent interest and that I had agreed to pay it back in a year.

3. It is for this reason that Japan has become a strong country.
4. I bought up the house on the corner of Kiukiang and Fukien Roads, but the house on Szechuen Road was rented.
5. I sent a letter to Mr. Jen-sen Yang, (of) No. 33, (on) Tatung Road, (in) Chungking, (in) Szechuen.
6. I found an old manuscript on the top shelf of a cabinet behind the door in the front room of the third floor.
7. Omit the second word, line 3, paragraph 4, of Lesson 37.
8. He is the third son by the second wife of Erh-lao-yeh [二老爷] of Chang family.
9. This was the first book published by the MacMillan Company.

9.82. Economy in Phrase and Clause Modifiers.—We have found that there is a general tendency to make the modifying phrase or clause as short as possible. In certain constructions, words are often dropped (ellipsis). The clearest examples are:—

The man (that) I killed. (§ 9.68).
I found the handkerchief (that) you lost the other day.
Don't talk while (you are) working. (§ 9.71)
Send it to me, when (it is) finished.
Give it to me when (it is) ready.
He dropped in on Monday evening, as (it) was usual, *or* as (it was) usual, (§ 9.691)
The reason that (=for which) I came is this. (§ 9.67) *Or*, the reason (that) I came, etc.

Notice also such extremely short constructions as *all told* (=if you tell, or count, all), *everything considered* (=when you consider everything), *weather permitting* (=if weather permits), see § 9.42.

This economy of expression in modifying phrases and

clauses is natural, because they are logically less important than the main clause.

By means of such economy of expression, the English language has attained a greater simplicity and ease than the German language, for instance.

9.83. The Nominal Phrase.—The law of economy has resulted in another type of phrase very similar to the absolute participial phrase mentioned in § 9.42.

(a) He was carried into the house, *head first* (=with his head first).
(b) I can win it *hands down* (=without trouble).
(c) We walked together, *arm in arm.*
(d) He was carried into the hospital, *his face a mass of bleeding flesh.*
(e) The nurse entered the room, *pencil in hand,* to take down the patient's name and address.
(f) *Bit by bit,* the patient recovered.

In each of the above sentences, there is a descriptive phrase introduced by a n. followed by a word or phrase modifying it.

The absolute participial phrase may be considered as a special kind of nominal phrase. It differs from the others only in having the n. followed by a participle (as *weather permitting, everything considered*).

9.84. Joining of Phrases.— It most frequently happens that several rel. clauses or several participial phrases come together in a sentence, giving us the *which...and which* or *—ing...and —ing* construction. Instead of *and,* sometimes *but* is used. This is a very useful construction and quite simple,

so long as the writer keeps to this formula.

Having finished his official business
and wishing to take a little rest,
the king returned to the country.

The great danger is that the student often uses *and which,* or *and —ing,* where no *and* is required at all. The following example shows a very common error:—

We had a most enjoyable picnic party *and* not *returning* till sunset.

Here the *and* is totally uncalled-for.

Exercise 85. Straighten up the confused grammatical constructions in the following sentences:—

1. We were shown the great pearl *which* formerly belonged to the Empress Dowager *and looking* as big as a green pea.
2. We were shown the big pearl *which looking* as big as a green pea.
3. The pearl had been given by the Empress Dowager to Li Lien-ying, *and who* was her court favourite.
4. A curio merchant found it sewn onto a silk gown, stolen by a family servant, *and which* was sold to a pawn-shop.
5. A Japanese soldier entered the curio shop one day, saw the big pearl, took the gown away *and not paying* for it.

Complements as Modifiers

9.90. The Predicate Complements.—A predicate consists either of a finite vb. alone or of a finite vb. and anything else necessary to complete its meaning. Thus the object

him in *I killed him* is also considered a complement of the vb. *killed.* In § 9.31 "b," we have also studied the type *began to see,* where the infinitive *to see* serves also as a complement to complete the meaning of *began.* There are, however, other types of complements which serve as modifiers either of the subject or of the object.

Modifying the subject:—

(a) He was elected *president.*
(b) He grew *pale.*

Modifying the object:—

(c) We made him *president.*
(d) I found him *sitting alone.*
(e) I made him *go.*

In "a" and "c" we have nn. acting as modifiers, and in "b" and "d" we have other kinds of words—adjj., participles, etc.—acting as modifiers. The case "e" will be treated in the following section separately.

Exercise 86. Study the following carefully and see whether the subject or the object is modified by the word or phrase in italics.

1. He became *president* (or *the president*) of the company.
2. We called him a *fool.*
3. We considered him the ablest *man* of the group.
4. The work is considered *perfect* (or *finished*).
5. I found him *naked* and half *crazy.*
6. I found the child *in a ditch* and *unable* to get out of it.
7. It is thought *best* to let him alone.
8. His wife described him *like* a fool.
9. I found her *waiting* alone in the room.

10. This made me *furious.*
11. This turned him *crazy.*
12. He played the *fool.*
13. Boil the egg *soft.*
14. He was made *King* of Iran.
15. He got *well.*
16. Make it *nice* and *dainty.*
17. Hang it *high* in the air.
18. I found the money *gone.*
19. The girl looks very *pretty.*

9.91. "I made him go."—This requires special consideration. Here an action is predicated of the object, and we may have the following forms:—

(a) The action may be passive from the point of view of the object, as—

Have the shoes *repaired.*
Have the letter *mailed.*
Have the linen *sent* out to be washed.
Have a doctor *sent* for.
I want to see the building *finished.*
I would rather see you *damned* first. (An impolite form of refusal)
Keep the money *locked* in the safe.

These all suggest or indicate something to be done to the object. Hence the past participle is used.

(b) The action may be active from the point of view of the object, in which case the vb. expressing it is put in the infinitive. After the vbb. **make, let, see** and **hear,** the *to* of the infinitive is regularly dropped, after **help** and **bid**, it is sometimes dropped and sometimes retained; after all other words, like **ask, allow, want, command, urge, request,** etc., it is always expressed.

(I) I made him *go.*
I saw him *go* up the stairs.

I heard him *say* (not *said*) that Mr. Liu was ill.
Why not let him *go*?
Let me *pass*.
Make him *wait* outside (*pay* for it).

(II) Help him *finish* (or *to finish*) the job.
This will help *pay* (or *to pay*) the week's rent.
Won't you let me help you *do* it? (Better than *to do* it)
Bid him *go* (or *to go*) away.

(III) Allow him *to finish* his supper.
I am not allowed *to* (do anything).
I could not ask him *to do* it.
Order some food *to be brought* to my room.

(c) There is a difference between *I saw him go up the stairs* and *I saw him going up the stairs*. The former expresses an action, while the second expresses a condition, exactly similar to sentence 10 in Exercise 86 of § 9.90: *I found her waiting alone in the room.*

CHAPTER X

COMPARISON AND DEGREE

10.10. The Degrees of Comparison: The Relative Nature.— In English grammar, the usually recognized "degrees of comparison" of adjj. and advv. are three: **positive, comparative and superlative,** as represented by *old, older, oldest,* or *good, better, best.* Now these three degrees, it should be clearly understood, only refer to the formal endings, *-er* and *-est,* as regards the change in word-form; in no way do they exhaust the possible degrees of comparison in language, as regards its logical content. Logically, there should be at least five degrees, namely, *old, older, oldest, less old* and *least old.* Thus we have:—

stupid—{ more stupid—most stupid / less stupid—least stupid }

Moreover, there are all sorts of words expressing indeterminate degrees, such as *extremely, somewhat, more or less,* in the actual language. These words are used, not for comparison among several objects, but for indicating degrees in a general way, as *somewhat in "somewhat* tired," or with reference to some assumed standard, as *too* in *too old for her,* with *her* as the standard. In this grammar, all such expressions and their use will be studied, because they are all means of expressing the notion of degree.

It should also be noted that the comparative and super-

lative degrees are used only for comparison among several objects. A "better" man than Al Capone (American gangster) is not necessarily a "good" man, and a "more honest" man than the Minister of Communications may not be a really "honest" man at all. This student is "older" than that student, comparatively speaking, but, absolutely speaking, neither of them is really "old." So the positive degree (*old*) is really absolute, while the comparative and superlative degrees (*older, oldest*) are relative.

Thus we come to the conclusion that the "better" man is not better than the "good" man, and we shall find also the "best" man is not really better than the "better" man. The "best" man is simply "better" than all the rest. If A is thirteen, B is twelve and C is eleven, then, clearly, A is only older than B and C, although he is the oldest. And then A really is not "old" at all.

10.11 The "Three Degrees of Comparison."—In English, we have the endings *-er* and *-est* for the comparative and superlative degrees, as in *older, oldest,* while there are no special endings to indicate the degrees expressed by *less old* and *least old,* which are often expressed by *younger* and *youngest.* Moreover, the longer words do not admit such endings, but are used with *more* and *most.* The general rules are:—

(1) Words of one syllable can *always* have "-er" and "-est." E. g.—

great	broad	new	deep
greater	broader	newer	deeper
greatest	broadest	newest	deepest

Sometimes it is possible to use the words *more* and *most*

Thus *sound, sounder, soundest* is always correct, but we sometimes say, "This is a *more sound* proposition."

(2) Words of two syllables *sometimes* take "-er" and "-est" and *sometimes* "more" and "most." E.g.—

clever	narrow	happy	lovely
cleverer	narrower	happier	lovelier
cleverest	narrowest	happiest	loveliest

stupid	cunning	learned
more stupid	more cunning	more learned
most stupid	most cunning	most learned

There are no clear rules for this difference, except established usage and a vague sense of euphony, which is again based on usage. Thus we have *cleverer, cleverest,* but *more proper, most proper,* and not *properer, properest.* We might say *handsomer* or *more handsome,* and *commoner* or *more common,* but we could never say *cunninger* or *learneder* or *honester.* The *-y* ending seems always to go well with the *-er* and *-est,* as *dirtier, healthier, crazier, lazier, funnier* (but usually *more sticky* and not *stickier*). The only comparatively clear rule seems to be that the endings *-able, -ible, -ful, -ing* can never take on the *-er, -est* additions. Thus formations like *laughabler, awfuller, cunninger* are practically unknown in English. Advv. in *-ly* (except *early*) always have "more" and "most," as *more rarely, most surely.*

(3) Words of three or more syllables ***generally*** take "more" and "most," and only rarely *-er, -est.* E.g.—

beautiful	convenient	interesting
more beautiful	more convenient	more interesting
most beautiful	most convenient	most interesting

generous	incomplete	comprehensive
more generous	more incomplete	more comprehensive
most generous	most incomplete	most comprehensive

Exceptionally, however, we do sometimes use *-er* and *-est* for emphasis, e.g., "This is the *confoundedest* problem I ever came across," which is more expressive than *most confounded.* Such cases are really abnormal deviations from the regular rule for some special reasons of rhetoric.

NOTE.—When we add the ending *-er* or *-est* to words ending in *-y*, we change the *y* into *i*, when it follows a consonant, but keep it unchanged, if it follows a vowel: thus, *happier, lazier, clumsier,* but *gayer, coyer.* Phonetically, *gayer* retains the original "long a" sound, which is not lowered as in *prayer* (=祷文): *gayer* rhymes with *layer* (n.), and not with *mayor, prayer, there, care.* A single final consonant preceded by a single vowel is doubled when *-er* or *-est* is added to it: thus *thinner, fatter,* but *quicker* and *cheaper.*

10.12. "More Better," "Next Best," etc.—Two cases are worthy of special mention. In vulgar speech, and among Chinese students, the phrase "more better" is often used. This is not in accordance with good usage, although it can be found in Shakespeare, who also gives us "*the most unkindest cut of all.*" The psychological reason for this mistake is the desire for clearness and emphasis.

On the other hand, the expressions "*next best,*" "*second best,*" "*third best*" are perfectly good and very convenient forms of expression, equivalent to Chinese 第二好,第三好. English has also the expression *the largest but one* (*two, three*) equivalent to Chinese 第二大 (第三, 第四大) respectively.

For emphasis, we have the expressions, ***the very best, the very worst, the very first*** and *the very last*. The word ***possible*** is also often added to a superlative in *-est* to emphasize its meaning:—

the *best possible* man for the job
the *worst possible* combination of fools and knaves
by the *quickest possible* route
at the *earliest possible* opportunity
make the *greatest possible* allowance

10.13. Superiority, Equality and Inferiority.—We see from § 10.10 that a more logical division of the degrees of comparison should be on the basis of equality or inequality, as suggested by Jespersen. On this basis, we should have the three degrees:—

1. (>) older than ....(Superiority)
2. (=) as old as ....(Equality)
3. (<) less old than ....(Inferiority)

Notice that in expressing equality, we use the conj. phrase *as...as*, but in expressing superiority or inferiority, we use the conj. *than*. Instead of the pair *as...as, so...as* may also be used. Moreover, we can put in a n. between the pair, as well as between *-er...than*. E.g.—

He is **as** good **a** *player* **as** Morley.
He is a **better** *player* **than** Morley.

Very often especially in the colloquial style, the phrase introduced by *than* or *as* is dropped as being understood.

But this will do just *as* well (*as* that one).
It is even *better* (*than* that one).

Are they *as* keen about it (*as* we are here)?
But this is just *as* good an opportunity.
I don't think you can find a *better* substitute.
Oh, no, he is not *as* (stressed) old, but old*er*.

Exercise 87. Change the following sentences, using the conjj. *as...as*, or *-er* (*more*)...*than*, with a n. in between.

1. Mr Harding and his wife are equally great gamblers.
2. In playing chess, Flexner is better than Harris.
3. Your correction and the original sentence are equally bad.
4. He and Hopkins are equally fast writers.
5. Hopkins does not write as fast as Murry.

The Latin comparatives *superior, inferior, prior, senior, junior* are followed by *to* and not by *than,* e.g., *prior to this event, superior to him in business ability.*

For *other than,* see § 8.20.

10.14. Implied Comparison.—There are a few adjj. which are used only in the comparative and superlative degrees, and which cannot be followed by *than.* These are all words denoting direction: *inner, outer, nether, upper,* and *innermost, outermost* (*outmost, utmost*), *nethermost* (rare), *uppermost.* We say *the inner circle* or *the outer circle,* but cannot say "This circle is *outer than* that one." The comparison is implied. Notice that the words in the positive degree for these adjj. are all prepp. or advv.—*in, out, beneath, up.*

Former and *latter* also cannot be followed by *than: the former president, the latter half,* but never *former than* or *latter than. Latter* refers to what comes behind in space, while *later* refers to what comes behind in time: *the latter half of the book,* but *the later period.* The superlatives are *foremost, first* and

latest, last respectively. The positive degree is represented by regular adjj. *fore* and *late.*

We can say *farther than this, further than that. Farther* means simply "more far," while *further* means "more advanced" in a particular direction (*further back in history*). Notice that we say in English *further to the east, further eastwards, further to the right, further up, further down* (not *more eastwards, more up,* etc.). The proper use of *further* is shown below:—

I may *further* mention...
And *further* (=moreover) we must remember...
I shall inquire *further* into the question.
I shall furnish you with *further* details.
Shop closed until *further* notice.
Furthermore=moreover.

10.15. Words That Cannot Be Compared.—Certain adjj. and advv. are absolute in meaning, and therefore cannot be compared. Either a thing is *right* or it isn't; there can't be one thing more right than another. We can say *more correct* or *less correct,* and *more in the right, more in the wrong,* but not *more right* or *more wrong.* This comes from the English sense of a sharp distinction between right and wrong, which admits of no gradations; contrast the Chinese notions 更非, 更是 (不是). Thus we have:—

更是= more correct (*not* more right)
更非= more incorrect (*not* more wrong)
更相同= more similar (*not* more identical)
更不同= differs more (*not* more different)
更与事实不符= is farther from the truth (*not* more false)

Other adjj. which do not admit of comparison both in Chinese and English, do not require special caution. One dead

body, for instance, cannot be *deader* than the rest, nor can one piece of ice be *more frozen* than another.

On the other hand, we have in English certain comparative forms which do not easily admit of translation into Chinese. In both languages, we can say, of course, that one is *more patriotic* than the other. But in English, we can even say he is *more of a patriot* than another, or he is *more of a patriot* than a politician, meaning that he is a better patriot than a politician. This is possible from the related notion that one can be "a bit of a politician" and "a bit of a patriot" at the same time. The comparison is that of the man in his two capacities. The latter construction, therefore, does not admit of a direct translation, but has to be paraphrased. Similarly—

> That sounds like *more of a gamble* (than a proper trade).

The construction *more often than not* is also rather pecular:—

> (It happened) *More often than not,* our salaries were deducted on account of all sorts of special emergency taxes.
>
> *More often than not,* he had to be helped out of his financial difficulties at the end of the year.

10.16. Weakened Superlatives.—In all languages, superlatives have been abused. All merchants claim their goods to be "the best." From the movie advertisements, one gets the idea that every film is "the best picture of the year" or "the most gorgeous spectacle" or "the most stupendous production" or "played by the greatest galaxy of stars" since human history began. The abuse of the superlative is only

an exaggerated form of the common habit to use it in a loose, and consequently weakened, meaning. Thus in the modern Pekingese dialect, *t'ing* (挺) has been developed as a weakened superlative for the more logical *ting* (顶). *T'ing hao* means very much the same as English "very good" (conveying very little enthusiasm on the part of the speaker), while *ting hao* means "the best." In English, the word "dearest" has probably been very often abused. But quite apart from such conventional forms, weakened superlatives are employed everyday of our life. Thus we say, "He is a *most* learned scholar," "We spent a *most* agreeable evening," "I read a *most* interesting novel," or "He was the *funniest* man I ever saw." In polite conversation, we also often say "With the *greatest* pleasure" in reply to some request, or "I shall be *most* delighted to see you," when we mean only "very delighted."

Very, although not a superlative, is similarly weakened, and its function is very often more euphonic than logical, (like Chinese 很 in 很好, 很高, 很坏). This has developed to such an extent that today, the words *many, few, little, much, far, near* are less commonly used alone than *very many, very few, very little, very much, very far, very near.* That this is purely euphonic is shown by the fact that when some other adv. is used, *very* can be very well dropped.

> There are *very few, so few, not few* people there. (Better than "There are *few* people there.")
> It is *very far, not far,* or so *far.* (But never "It is *far,*" and seldom "It is *far* from here.")
> I like you *very much.* (Never "I like you *much.*")
> He eats *very little.* (Seldom "He eats *little.*")

Very good. (More common than "*Good!*")
(Notice we say 这个人很坏， or 坏透了，but never坏 alone.)

Comparison with a Standard

10.20. Comparison with a Standard.—Instead of comparing several things with one another, we might compare a thing with some standard, expressed or implied. Here superiority is indicated by words like *too, above,* and the prefixes *over-, hyper-*. Equality is indicated by the phrase *as...as* or *so...as,* and by the adv. *enough.* Inferiority is indicated by *not enough* and the prefix *under-*. Both *too* and *enough* go with *to* (introducing the standard of comparison) or with *for* (usually introducing a person as the standard).

(1) **Too...to, too...for** and allied terms. Notice carefully the constructions involved in the following examples and note the word or phrase serving as the "standard" for comparison.

This exercise may be *too* easy *for* you, but it is *too* difficult *for* me.
Death is *too* good *for* him (=He should be punished by something worse than death).
Tennis is *too* strenuous *for* a man of my age.
It is *too* beautiful *to* be true (=It can't be true).
I am *too* busy *to* attend to this (*too* busy *for* that).
Nothing is *too* good *for* his new house. (He wants absolutely the very best material to be used).
For Confucius' taste, rice could never be *too* white, and mincemeat could never be chopped *too* fine (食不厌精，脍不厌细: could never be white enough=the whiter, the better).
Your gown is *too* bright-coloured *for* this occasion.
I am *too* tired *to* work tonight.
This food is *too* hot *to* eat, *too* hot *to* be eaten, *too* hot *for* me,

too hot *for* eating, *too* hot *for* me *to* eat, *too* hot *for* comfort.

There are also phrases like *above normal, above my ability, beyond my power, beyond his means* (=too expensive for him), *beyond me* (=beyond my ability or my understanding), *beyond* (*any*) *doubt, beyond* (*any*) *question.* Notice also the prefixes which express the same notion as *too: overeat* (=eat too much, eat more than is good for one's health), *oversleep* (=sleep overtime), *overwork, overdo* (=go too far in something proper or commendable in itself, as, "Don't *overdo* it"), *overreach oneself* (=reach out so far that one falls—often figuratively); *supernormal, supernatural superhuman, super-dreadnought* (=warship of the class above Dreadnought), *superfine* (in commercial language, =of extra quality); *hypersensitive* (=over-sensitive), *hypercritical* (=too critical), *hypertension* (of nerves or blood pressure).

More than. Besides the usual use in *more than two,* etc., there are other forms that require more attention. Study the following constructions carefully:—

(*Subject Omitted*)

He eats *more than* is good for him. (More than *what* is good for him. Regarding this ellipsis, see § 9.82.)

You have talked *more than* is necessary.

I have done *more than* is required by the law.

(*Object Omitted*)

He eats *more than* he can digest. (More than *what* he can digest. The object *what* is omitted.)

That is *more than* (*what*) I can say. (It is beyond my knowledge.)

He got *more than* (*what*) he asked for.

That was *more than* (*what*) he expected.

(*Followed by an infinitive*)

He knows *better than* to go out alone on such a night.
I am *wiser than* to believe that.

(*Followed by an adj.*)

This is *more than* fine: it is excellent.
She was *more than* pretty: she was beautiful.
He was *more than* clever: he was a great artist.
We have *more than* enough.

(2) **Enough to, enough for, as**...as and allied expressions:—

There are *enough* bacilli in this test-tube *to* kill the whole city population.
This room is hot *enough to* bake potatoes in.
In one year, he spent (*or* she saved) *enough to* buy three villas.
This food is just *enough for* eight people.
We have *enough* eggs (or eggs *enough*) *to* last us three days (or *enough for* three days).
There is noise *enough to* wake up the dead.
I had *enough* to do *to* catch the tram (could barely catch it).
Enough *work for* today.

The construction *as*...*as* is entirely unlike anything in Chinese.

as soon *as* possible	*as* hot *as* last summer
as often *as* you like	*as* rich *as* Baron Rothschild
as soon *as* you are ready	*as* drunk *as* a lord
as high *as* your shoulder	*as* dead *as* a doornail
as heavy *as* can be borne (cf. "more than is good" above)	*as* tall *as* he (or *as* he is)
	as interesting *as* a novel
as hot *as* a furnace	*as* beautiful *as* a rose
as hot *as* ninety-two degrees	*as* quick *as* lightning, etc.

The use of *so*...*as* (followed by a word or phrase) and *so*...

that (followed by a clause) is quite common. They both express a degree of quality defined by the following phrase or clause, quite similar in function to the word *teh* (得) in 热得疼手，热得头昏, etc.

Exercise 88. (A) Translate the following into Chinese:—

1. *so* hot *as* to burn your fingers
2. *so* hot *that* one can scarcely breathe
3. *so* soon *as* I can come
4. *so* bright *as* to dazzle your eyes
5. *so* big *that* two can sit in it
6. *so* excited *that* he forgot his appointment
7. *so* fat *that* she could not climb the stairs
8. *so* quiet *that* you could hear a pin fall
9. *so* happy about it *that* she cried

(B) Translate the following into English, using *so ...that*, or *so...as*, to describe a degree:—

1. 我疲得不能走路。
2. 我热得不能喘气。
3. 那天热得瓶中金鱼都死了。
4. 日光亮得不能开眼。
5. 这机器热得烫手。
6. 他急得要哭出来。
7. 他穷得没钱买米。
8. 他穷得不能付每月房租。

(3) Not enough, etc. Cases like *not hot enough* and *not as hot as* differ from the examples given under "2" only in having *not* added. The prefix *under-* is sometimes used to express the idea of insufficiency.

food is *underdone* (not cooked enough)
workman is *underpaid* (not paid enough)
photograph is *under-exposed* (not exposed long enough)
writer has been *underrated* or *underestimated* (not rated or regarded as high as he deserves)
article is *undersized* (size is smaller than the normal or than what is required)

man is *underweight* (weighs less than the normal for his height and sex)

Degree of Difference

10.30. Degree of Difference.—The means of expressing the degree of difference between two objects is also worth studying. The prep. *by* is most commonly used in this connexion, as may be seen from the following examples:—

Tom is older than Jim *by* three years.
Jim is taller than Effie *by* an inch and half.
Busy Bee won (the horse race) *by* a neck.
This is *by* far the best way of meeting the difficulty.
We won *by* 2-0.
I missed the train *by* three minutes.
Gold has risen *by* three points.

(In the last three examples, comparison is implied.)

Nn. indicating measures are often used for this purpose without any introductory prepp.

Jim is *an inch and half* taller than Effie.
Tom is *one pound* heavier than Steward.
She is *a year* older than her younger brother.
They are *miles* apart.
Prof. McMurray is *head and shoulders* above the rest of the faculty in his scholarship.

Easily the best is also a common expression meaning "*by far* the best."

10.31. Indeterminate Degrees.—Most advv. of degree belong to this class. They fall roughly into the following divisions:—

(1) More or less, to a certain extent, rather, somewhat, fairly, etc.—

We did it *more or* less for fun.

He is *more or less* crazy.

I was *more or less* disappointed. Or: *somewhat* disappointed; *to a certain extent* disappointed; *rather* disappointed.

To a certain extent he was wrong. *In a way* he was wrong.

To a certain extent (*to a certain degree*), this is excusable. This is *more or less* excusable, or *in a way* excusable.

He understands English *fairly* well.

We had *fairly* enough (i.e., enough for practical purposes, though not *quite* enough).

(**Fairly** often used by Englishmen as a moderate way of saying "quite.")

I was *fairly* puzzled.

The opponent was *fairly* silenced.

The company *fairly* went to pieces.

I was *fairly* sick of the whole affair.

(**Rather**="somewhat," "slightly," "in a way.")

I *rather* think you know him.

He came *rather* late.

I feel *rather* tired.

The performance was *rather* a failure.

It was *rather* good.

The singing fell *rather* flat.

(2) A little, hardly, scarcely, barely, etc.—

I was *a little* tired, unwilling, angered, frightened.

He was *slightly* hurt.

The little child was not *a bit* afraid. The big man was not *a bit* ashamed. He was *a bit* proud of his daughter.

I don't care *a bit* (*a rap, a twopence*) what you say.

(**Little** is different from *a little,* being negative in meaning="not

much.")

He is *little* known round here.
The people live in houses *little* better than hovels.
You *little* know how much I suffered during your absence.
We had *little* more than three pounds a week to live on.
I am *little* interested in your proposition.

(**Hardly** and **scarcely** are also negative in meaning—"almost **not**.")

Hardly (=almost not) a man turned up.
We had *hardly* (=almost no) time to finish the lesson.
I could *hardly* believe what he said.
That is *hardly* possible.
There was *hardly* a soul there.
I had *hardly* a penny left.
I *hardly* ever (—almost never) see him.
That is *hardly* better than what he gave him.
He is *hardly* known outside his native town.

(**Scarcely** could be used for all these sentences and in any place where *hardly* is used.)

(**Barely**="only just," is less negative in meaning than *hardly*.)
We had *barely* (=only just) enough.
He was *barely* five feet tall.
It is not *barely* (=only just) a question of money.
That is *barely* possible.
We had *barely* five minutes left.
We had plenty of coal, *barely* enough rice, but could get no vegetable.

(3) A lot, very, much, far, considerably, etc.—

This way of doing it is *a lot* (*lots*, *far*) better.
We got *a lot* (*lost*) more room that way.
I can tell you something *far* (*a lot*) more interesting.
A is *far* (*greatly*) superior to B.

I am feeling *a lot* better (or *a great deal, a good deal,* sometimes *a deal* better).
He was *to a great extent* responsible for the failure.
After ten o'clock, the patient felt *considerably* better.
M—— was *far* too clever for him.
The sales have been *considerably* (*noticeably*) increased.

decidedly heavier	*appreciably* lighter
considerably greater	*greatly* changed
noticeably affected	*tremendously* successful
remarkably clever	*exceptionally* beautiful
markedly improved	*incomparably* the best

Difference between "very" and "much." *Very* is usually used with adjj. (*very ill, very good, very interesting*); while *much* is usually used with past participles (*much pleased, much influenced, much improved, much destroyed,* or *very much pleased,* etc.). *Much* is also used with the comparative degree (*much better, much greater, much more difficult*). But there is a class of past participles which are so much used that they have practically become adjj. Thus we can say *I feel very tired,* but never *I feel much tired* (cf. *a very tired look on his face*). The difficulty is that usage varies extremely in this respect and the line of distinction between the past participles that can be used as adjj. and those that cannot is very difficult to draw. Unless one is sure that *very* is correct, *much* should be used before past participles. *Very* (besides *much*) may be safely used with *pleased, delighted, surprised, worried* and *frightened* when these words are not followed by *by*. In the latter case, they are really used as past participles in that particular connexion. When in doubt, *greatly* may be substituted.

On the other hand, adjj. which can be used only pre-

dicatively (after the nn.) and never attributively (before the nn.) generally go with *much* and not *very*. E.g., *I am very much afraid* (one cannot say *a very afraid man*)/*He is very much like his father, very much behind the others*/*They are very much alike.*

Exercise 89. Fill in the word *very* or *much* (or *very much*) in the following blanks:—

1. I shall be ———— pleased to see you.
2. A ———— celebrated writer was present at the meeting.
3. After years of absence, he found his wife ———— changed.
4. The sale has been ——— increased through this new method.
5. While in Paris, he was ———— influenced by one of his fellow-students.
6. He was ——— worried about the affair.
7. He was ——— surprised to find only three men in the room.
8. The picture was ——— admired by many visitors.
9. The professor cut the tail into two, and placed them ———— apart.
10. After two weeks' rest, his condition was ———— improved.
11. I hear a ———— exaggerated story.
12. The story has been ———— exaggerated by him.
13. I feel ———— concerned about it.
14. He was ———— disappointed by her absence.
15. Lucy went home alone, ———— disappointed.

(4) Quite, almost, principally, largely, wholly, partly, etc. *Largely* means "for the greater part" (大半, 多半), while *greatly* means "very much." *Principally, chiefly,* and *largely* mean about the same thing. *Wholly, entirely, completely* and

perfectly are used with both desirable and undesirable qualities or conditions, while *utterly* and *totally* are usually restricted to undesirable qualities or conditions, and all these words are opposed to *partly*. *Absolutely* is opposed to *relatively* or *comparatively*. Some examples follow:—

it is *perfectly* clear
is *absolutely* sure, sincere
is *relatively* certain
entirely successful or unsuccessful
entirely his own
perfectly useless, right
perfectly happy, contented
partly my mistake
partly broken, conquered
largely his fault
largely through my help.
wholly, *completely* successful
principally caused by
utterly wrong, useless
utterly forgotten, mistaken
totally ignorant
totally unaware of, unprepared for
chiefly for that purpose
chiefly for gain
chiefly mathematics and English
quite broken-hearted
quite absorbed
quite meaningless, cold, common, proper
almost blind
almost penniless

Exercise 90. (A) Make sentences with the above examples or with similar constructions of your own.

(B) Make sentences with:—

considerably	*markedly*	*exceptionally*
greatly	*appreciably*	*immensely*
remarkably	*noticeably*	*reputedly*
decidedly	*tremendously*	*knowingly*

after the models given under "3" above.

(5) Not too, none too, not over, not altogether, etc. English dislike of being over-demonstrative and the English avoidance of superlatives as a matter of good form have

resulted in the frequent use of negative or reversed expressions (cf. § 3.45). Thus "very unhappy" is often expressed by *not too happy*, and *very unpleasant* is often expressed by *not (none) too pleasant*. This form has now been often used to express undesirable qualities, and always savors of disapproval. Thus *Not too clever* is often used to express a warning against, or disapproval of, a stupid act. Further examples are:—

He was *none too pleased* about it.
He went as ordered, but was *none too quick* about it.
I am *not over-hopeful* about the situation.
They did*n't* get along *too well* together.
He was*n't over-happy* about the whole affair.
I did*n't* have *too much* money to spend for such idle purposes.
Do*n't* be *too sure* about it.
I was*n't over-enthusiastic* about it from the very beginning.
This was *not altogether* an *easy* task (a success).
She was *not altogether unwilling* (was, in fact, quite willing).

10.32. Limitation,—We have already learnt the use of *as...as* in § 10.20 "2." A slightly different sense of limitation with reference to the degree of quality is suggested by such expressions as the following:— "I am willing to go *so far and no farther*," or "He will stay *as long* (or *so long*) *as* his finances will permit." The idea is that up to a certain point the degree of quality or action is admitted. The most typical example is the English phrase *as far as...is concerned.*

As far as I *am concerned*, you can go anywhere you please.
As far as the accused *are concerned*, it is up to the court to settle the question.
As far as the creditor *is concerned*, the debt must be paid. (He does not care how the money is obtained to pay it.)

As far as the question of international debts *concerns the United States,* the problem is whether to have all the gold flow to America or to have her trade revived.

Note also the following phrases:—

As far as I know, nobody was in the room this morning.

I will take up the matter *as far as I am able to.* (To the best of my ability.)

He took down *as much* of the conversation *as he was able to* understand (and left unrecorded what he could not understand.)

Stretch your arms *as far as possible.*

Eat *as much as you can.*

She was *as good* a mother *as could be.*

So long as and **inasmuch** as are other phrases indicating this kind of limitation. Like the adv. of degree *the* in "*The* sooner, *the* better" (see below § 10.33), these phrases also bring in the idea of a causal relationship.

So long as you persist in your old ways, I cannot give you any money.

So long as there is no political stability in China, industry can not be developed.

Inasmuch as you know the story already, I will not tell it again.

You shall be forgiven this time, *inasmuch as* you realize your error.

Mr. Chen ought to be consulted, *inasmuch as* he is paying the money.

In so far as this matter concerns all of us, we should take a

united action.

In so far as you were responsible for the starting of this scheme, you ought to pay more for it than the others.

10.33. Cumulative Degrees.—Another type of ideas is expressed by such expressions as *He is getting better and better,* where not any one definite degree but rather a progressive series are indicated. This is sometimes suggested by the word *gradually* (逐漸) alone, as *Judaism gradually went out of existence in China,* but sometimes by such phrases as *smaller and smaller, weaker and weaker, poorer and poorer.* Some examples follow:—

While he was growing *richer and richer,* his country was becoming *poorer and poorer.*

The attacks (of epilepsy, melancholia, etc.) became *more and more frequent.*

The patient *steadily* grew worse.

He was daily becoming *weaker and weaker,* and was compelled to take *bigger and bigger* doses of sleeping powder.

He found it *more and more difficult* (or *increasingly* difficult) to resist the temptation.

As his health and his will-power grew *weaker and weaker,* he indulged himself *more and more.*

Of particular interest is the use of *the* in this connexion as an adv. of degree, meaning "by so much" or "by that much." *The more he flatters me, the more I dislike him* means "By so much more he flatters me, by that much more I dislike him."

The older we grow, *the* more shameless we become.

The sooner you can come, *the* better (it is for me). *The* sooner, *the* better.

The more she keeps him away, *the* more he admires her.
The more people there are, *the* merrier it is. *The* more, *the* merrier.

From the meaning "by that much," *the* thus develops another meaning "on that account," as is suggested by the second *the* in each of the above examples. Hence, we get expressions like *all the better* (=so much better on that account), *all the worse* (=so much worse on that account), or *so much the worse.*

And if I am mistaken and he is right, then *so much the worse* for China.
He has left the town? *So much the worse* for him (=so much worse on that account, as an added evidence of his guilt.)
A long delayed home letter is *all the more welcome* (=on account of the long delay.)
He has tried to buy me all sorts of presents, but I do not like him *the more* for it.
He was *none the better* for having a diploma, and I *none the worse* for not having it.
We shall invite him, and if he won't come, *all the better.*

Exercise 91. Construct some sentences, using the phrases *none the worse, all the better, so much the worse,* etc. after the above models. Also complete the following sentences:—

The longer you wait,......
The less he hears about this,......
The more you urge him to go,......
The poorer he becomes,......
The older he grows,......
The more I think of it,......
The richer he becomes,......
The more people oppose him,......

Choice and Comparison

10.40. Choice and Comparison: "Had Better" and "Would

Rather."—There is a difference between choice (between two different things or qualities) and comparison (between different degrees of the same quality). When I say, "I like apples *rather than* pears," it means I like apples, and really do not like pears; but when I say, "I like apples *more than* pears," the meaning is that I like both, but am fonder of one than of the other. Thus we may also state a choice or consideration of two opposite qualities. When we say, "This is deep brown *rather than* yellow," the question is whether the thing is yellow at all, not whether it is more yellow or less yellow than another.

Would rather. The word *rather* is most frequently used for stating two different qualities or courses of action. In referring to actions, *would rather* is the regular form used, while *had rather* is also allowable. In most cases, an infinitive without *to* is used after *than.* Observe the tense and construction of the following examples carefully:—

I would rather *die* than *surrender.*
He *resigned* rather than *stifle* his conscience.
Dying rather than *surrender* (=dying–rather–than–surrender) was the decision of every one of the garrison.
Rather than *undertake* to keep three Russians at Shanghai under surveillance, the Municipal Council *deported* them.
He would rather *have died* than *refused* (infinitive with *have* omitted; not past tense).
I would much rather not *go.*
Use *soft* water rather than *hard.*
He showed the desire to seem *clever* rather than *honest.*
I had rather *err* with Plato than *be* right with Horace.
I had (*or* would) rather not *say* anything about it.
I would rather *leave* the posts vacant than *fill* them with

inferior men (宁缺毋滥).

Had better, followed by an infinitive without *to* is a common form used in offering advice. It indicates a course of action in preference to some other course. *Prefer* is also often used for indicating choice between two things or courses of action (*prefer* something more desirable *to,* and not *than,* something less desirable). Some examples follow:—

Don't you think you *had better go* home now?
You'*d better run* along.
You'*d better find* out what he is doing.
He *preferred* the English *to* the French.
She *prefers* working *to* begging.
He *prefers* water *to* wine.
X *prefers* Egyptian cigarettes.
Y *prefers to* stay (would rather stay than go.)
Z *prefers to* be left alone.
I *prefer to* say nothing about it.
Noulens *preferred to* die of starvation rather than submit to this treatment.

Comparison and Case

10.50. Comparison and Case.—A comparison always requires at least two things to be compared. It is important that we make clear to ourselves what are the things thus compared. When we say, "She loves him *more than* the child," the comparison may be between the lady and the child (*more than the child loves him*) or between the husband and the child (*more than she loves the child*). Fortunately, when a pron. is used, the meaning is made clear through the case of the pron.—*She loves the child more than he* (*loves the child*),

o *She loves the child more than (she loves) him.* See the meaning implied in the following:—

You could do it better than *I*.
I could talk French as well as *he*.
There is no better man than *he* to take up this job.
They were admiring the Queen rather than *Confucius*.
The remark was intended for him rather than *me*.

Notice also the persons or things that are compared in the following:—

Matthews wrote a longer essay than *mine*.
Her dress is a prettier pink than *my wife's*.
Your house is better situated and has bigger windows than *mine*.
These stories are quite as interesting as *those* written by Andersen.
The climate of Shanghai is not so damp as *that* of Hongkong.
The grammar of the Chinese language is quite different from *that* of Japanese.
His was a newer hat than *Mr. Johnson's*.
The arms of the chimpanzee are longer than *those* of man.

Exercise 92. Correct the following sentences, or decide which of the words in italics shall be used, as properly indicating the person or object compared:—

1. I smoke more cigars than *him* (*he*?). (Can one smoke him?)
2. The leaves of the orange-tree are smaller than bananas.
3. The goods at Wing On are cheaper than Sincere.
4. The Chinese can roast ducks better even than France. (Can France be roasted?)
5. Mrs. Davis is a taller woman than Mr. Davis. (Compare th height of the two persons.)

6. My child is older than *you* (*yours*?).
7. The cat has sharper claws than *you*. (Compare the cat's claws with your finger-nails.)
8. Her rooms are better furnished than *I* (*me*? *mine*?).
9. The distance between Shanghai and Nanking is greater than Hangchow.
10. The skin of Chinese women is, as a whole, finer and smoother than foreign women.
11. The charges for printing English books are higher than Chinese books.
12. The period of infancy of human beings is longer than the donkey.

CHAPTER XI

ASPECTS OF ACTION

11.01. The Study of the Verb.—The study of the vb. and its changes has been often regarded as the most important, and perhaps the most difficult, part of grammar. It is true that the vb. is the most important word in any sentence, because it is the vb. which gives life to the whole sentence and connects the parts up in a logical whole. Compare, for instance, *She is picking roses in the garden,* which gives us a satisfactory mental picture, with *She roses in the garden,* where the succession of images is dead and unrelated.

Undoubtedly, also, the vb. undergoes more changes and requires more careful handling than any other part of speech (compare, for instance, the relative stability of the n.) Just as an action has more complicated relations than an object or a quality, so a vb. is subject to more variations than a n. or an adj. An action immediately presupposes some one who does it (the subject of the action), and it may easily affect some one else or some particular thing (the indirect or direct object). Then, an action always takes place in time, whereas an object or quality does not necessarily involve a time-notion. Finally, the action itself may be of the most various kinds, whether active or passive, continuous or completed, real or supposed, etc.

In usual grammar books, the vbb. are divided into three classes, transitive, intransitive and auxiliary; each transitive

vb. may have two voices, active and passive; each voice may have so many moods, like interrogative, indicative, imperative and infinitive; the indicative and interrogative moods again may have so many tenses, present, past and future, and so many subordinate tenses, like present simple, present perfect, present perfect continuous, etc.

In this book which is based on notional principles, the vb. will be studied mainly under four heads: (*a*)the **Aspects of Action** (Chap. XI), (*b*) **Transitive Action,** especially the relationships of the subject and object (Chap. XII), (*c*) the **Time of Action** (Chap. XIII), and (*d*) the verbal moods, or **Fact and Fancy** (Chap. XIV). Thus, except the relationships with subject and object, and the notions and expressions of time and mood, all the other changes will be covered under the term "Aspect."

11.02. What is an Aspect?*—An "aspect" of action means a class of action. Actions, naturally, may be divided into different classes. Thus—

repeat, reiterate, return, recover, regain

* The word "aspect" is a term much used by grammarians in the comparative study of Indo-European languages, but except in the Slavic languages, where the word has a definite meaning, the term has been used to denote the most different things. Grammarians have not been able to agree, and it is not necessary to agree, how many aspects should be distinguished and labelled in the ideal language. This is because certain verbal aspects are recognized in some languages and totally ignored in others. In the study of any one particular language, however, it is entirely possible, and extremely necessary, to note the aspect-notions in that language.

belong to one class of action, in so far as they have all one aspect in common, i.e., all the actions consist in doing something over again or in going back to some thing. The same action or actions may be classified according to different aspects. If we take the word *repeat,* we may look at it from another aspect, and say that it is a transitive vb. in having the action extended to some object, as *repeat a song.* In this aspect, *repeat* may be classified with other transitive vbb. like *kill* (*a man*), *tell* (*a story*), *eat* (*some food*), which are different from intransitive vbb. like *go, come, rest, sleep.* Thus the consideration whether an action is transitive or intransitive may be considered an aspect-notion. Again, actions may be considered as of long duration (*know, remember, love*) or of short duration (*learn, remind, fall in love*). Or an action may be active (*I tell a story*) or passive (*I am told*). There is also a distinction between habitual action (*I smoke a pipe*) and simple present (*I am not smoking today*). Thus the same action and the same vb. may belong to different "aspects" or classes. Some aspects are determined by the nature of the vb. itself (transitive—intransitive), others may depend on how it is used (active—passive) or on tense-modifications (perfect—continuous).

In every language, certain aspects of action are clearly recognized. Without making clear to oneself these aspect-notions, the proper use of the vb. will never be really understood, in spite of the clearest conjugation tables.

Take, for instance, the English distinction between *I wrote* and *I have written.* This is usually classified as a tense-distinction, but the important difference is not one of time, but of aspect. Back of this formal distinction is the aspect-

notion, whether an action is regarded in itself (*I wrote*) or with reference to its result (*I have written*). The important thing is to realize the aspect-notion behind these formal changes.

11.03. The English Verbal Aspects.—The important aspect-notions in English that should be carefully studied and fully understood are the following. (1) The difference between action and condition. (2) The difference between transitive and intransitive action. (3) The difference between active and passive aspects of action. (4) The difference between completed and uncompleted action. (5) The inceptive, continuative and cessative aspects, or the beginning, continuation and end of action. (6) The difference between durative (long-time) and punctual (short-time) action. (7) Habitual action. (8) Tentative action. (9) Miscellaneous minor aspects showing causative, reiterative, reflexive and reciprocal action.

Action and Condition

11.10. Action and Condition.—The first and most important distinction of aspect is the difference between action and condition. It is true that *I am recovering* (*from illness*) is in the "present continuous tense" and *I have recovered* is in the "present perfect tense." But it is not true that the difference between *I recover* or *recovered* on the one hand, and *am recovering* or *have recovered* on the other, is a difference of tense. The real difference between the two is one of aspect, namely that while *recover* (*-ed*) denotes an **action** as such, *am recovering* and *have recovered* denote, not an action, but a **condition**.

Chinese students continuously confuse the two aspects, and employ the action-aspect far too often, where really the condition-aspect should be used. Thus one often hears such remarks as *You play with fire,* which is highly un-English. The idea is to indicate the *condition* that you *are playing* with fire. Such mistakes are extremely common.

He *comes* here. (Say *is coming*)
You *make* a great mistake. (Say *you are making,* or *have made*)
He *deceives* you. (Say *he is deceiving,* or *has deceived*)
I *consider* this question now. (This is an impossible sentence: say *I will consider* or *am considering*)
You *fool* me. (Say *you are fooling*)
The child *plays* alone in the room upstairs. (Say *is playing*)
I *do* not *smoke* this week. (Say *I am not smoking this week*)
I *do* not *see* anybody today. (Say *I am not seeing*)
I *stay* at the Y. P. S. Hotel. (Say *I am staying*)
I must *go*. (Say *I must be going*)
He *gets* better now. (Say *he is getting*)
He *suffers* from a headache. (Say *he is suffering*)

One may question why the fact that *I must be going* should be expressed as a condition and not as an action. But it is exactly this peculiarity in English ways of thinking that should be noted. To a very large extent, the present continuous has supplanted, or is supplanting, the present indefinite, whose use is being gradually limited. The fact is, an action often covers a long period of time, so that the action becomes a condition, for which the continuous or the perfect is more suitable. Hence a sentence like *I stay at Y.P.S. Hotel* or *I do not see anybody today* (present indefinite) does not, in the English way of thinking seem to accord with the truth. The

use of *I stay* and *I do not see* seems to indicate only an action lasting a short moment. I *am staying* (pres. continuous) at that hotel not only at this moment, but also this morning and this evening. And if I do not wish to see any visitors today, I *am* not *seeing* (pres. continuous) them not only at this moment, but also in the morning and in the afternoon.

The present indifinite is, therefore, used chiefly in three connexions. First, to suggest **habitual action:** as *Do you play tennis? / He smokes.* Secondly, in **general statements:** as *The earth moves / The moon waxes and wanes / The results depend on your own effort / The balloon goes up by its own weight or lightness / It pays to advertise / As soon as the vessel is filled, it topple over.* In all these examples, really no present action is indicated. Thirdly, where the vb. itself is sufficient to indicate a **long duration.** Many vbb. are of this nature: *know, feel, realize, think, understand, fear, hate, love, like, live, be, remain,* etc. E.g., *He knows (feels, sees, realizes) his mistake / I think you ought to go / I understand what you mean / I fear you are wrong / I hate to go alone / He intends to come back / You gorget that you owe him a debt of gratitude / Where do you live? / That is a mistake / That remains to be proved.*

Notice that the passive voice invariably indicates **a condition** and not an action as such: *He is killed / The watch is lost / The jar is broken / I am told / You are not allowed / He is greatly respected,* etc.

It may be said that the tenses formed with the auxiliaries *to be* and *to have* are invariably used to indicate a **condition** rather than an action.

The past indefinite (e.g., *He took away my umbrella / We*

won / This happened) is naturally used more freely than the present indefinite, because **most actions belong to the past.** A thing either *happened* some time ago or *is happening* now. That is why the past indefinite is used as much as the present continuous.

11.11. Being and Doing. Among all the English vbb., the vb. *to be* occupies a very special position. It may, in fact, be considered a class in itself, possibly with similar vbb. denoting the process of becoming, like *become, grow, get, turn.* While the vb. *to be* states what the subject **is,** all the other vbb. state what the subject **does.** This is especially clear in such sentences as:—

(*Doing*) He *told* me to go alone. That was what he *did.*
You *left* the party in the middle of the dinner. You oughtn't to *have done* that.
You are the only person who *likes* sour things. All the others *don't.*
Some people *go* to church, and some *don't.*

(*Being*) Some people *are* sensitive to such remarks, others *are* not.
He *was* afraid to go alone. Indeed he *was.*
(For further examples of this difference, see §3.40)

The consequence of this distinction is that while the vbb. of action may have objects, the vb. *to be* can never have an object, but only a complement to complete its meaning (It is *important* / He is *dead* / He is *my son*). Consequently, when a pron. follows the vb. *to be,* it is put in the nominative, and not the objective case.

It is *I.*
This is *he* who started the trouble.

Who is it?
If it wasn't *he*, it was *somebody* else.

Also, while we can use the auxiliary vb. *do* with any other vb. (*does not go, does not wish, does not have*), we cannot use it with the vb. *to be* (*does not be* is unknown).* The vb. *to be* is simply not regarded as a vb. of action. The Chinese translation of *tung-tz'ŭ* (动词) for "verbs," therefore, fits in with all vbb. except the vb. *to be*. In German, the vb. is called a "time-word" (*Zeitwort*) which is, in this respect, more satisfactory.

Transitive and Intransitive

11.20. Transitive and Intransitive Vbb.—This is the usual and the most important classification of vbb. In usual grammars, vbb. are divided into the three classes: **(1) Transitive, (2) Intransitive** and **(3) Auxiliaries.** The distinction is so important that all dictionaries indicate whether a vb. is transitive ("v.t.") or intransitive ("v.i."), for without knowing this, the vb. cannot be employed correctly. The essential difference is that a v.t. takes an object, but an v.i. does not. In terms of the aspect-notion, the difference is that, with a v.t., the action passes to another object, while, with an v.i., it stops with the subject. Following are some interesting pairs of vv.i. and vv.t.—

INTRANSITIVE	TRANSITIVE
I *fall* down.	I *felled* a tree.

* Auxiliaries like *must* and *can* also do not admit *do*, but they are not declinable. The vb. *to be* is the only declinable vb. that cannot go with *do*.

I *rise* from bed.	I *raise* my pencil.
I *lie* in bed.	I *lay* the book down.
He *was sitting* there.	He *set* his foot on England.
He *looks* round.	He *sees* something.
He *listens* carefully.	He *hears* the order.
You *are talking.*	Can't you *say* something?
Speak!	I have nothing to *say.*

Other examples of vv.i. are: *live, run, go, come, fly, swim, walk, sleep.* The important thing to remember is that an v.i. cannot directly govern an object, while a v.t. can do so. Thus we say *see* (v.t.) *the water* and *enter* (v.t.) *the garden,* but we cannot say *swim* (v.i.) *the water* or *walk* (v.i.) *the garden.*

Many vbb. are transitive in one particular context and intransitive in another, and in these cases the difference in usage should be carefully observed. Thus *swim* and *walk* are generally vv. i., but we may nevertheless use them as vv. t. in the following phrases: *swim the channel, swim one's horse across, walk the hospital* (=be a medical student), *walk the plank* (=walk blindfold into the sea over a plank on pirate ship's side), *walk the street* (=be a street-walker). Again, we may say: *talk a language* (*English, French*), *talk philosophy, talk nonsense,* but we cannot say *talk a story* or *talk this sentence.*

Study closely the different usage of the same vb. as v.i. and as v.t. in the following, and note that often such difference in use depends entirely on its association with a particular word or phrase:—

INTRANSITIVE	TRANSITIVE
I am sure he *drinks.*	Let's *drink* his health.
He can't *eat* now.	He will *eat* anything.

He *spoke* at the meeting.	The actor *speaks* his part badly.
You *talk* too much.	Don't *talk* nonsense.
I shall not *move* (=take steps) in the matter.	*Move* heaven and earth. This *moved* him to anger.
The ship *floats*.	*Float* a loan.
You shall *hang* (=be hanged to death) for this.	*Hang* a picture on the wall.
The child walks before he *runs*. *Run* for your life. Hope *runs* high. The river *runs dry*.	*Run* an ox down. *Run* him to death. *Run* a candidate for office. *Run* a boat, a machine. *Run* a rope round his neck.
He *writes*.	He *writes* a letter.
I *believe*.	I *believe* you.
Do you *sing*?	*Sing* a song for us.

It will be noticed that, of the two in each pair, the intransitive usually has a more general meaning, often referring to a general habit or ability: *drink*=have the habit of drinking wine, *speak*=give a speech, *float*=have the ability to float, *run*=have the ability to run, *write*=be a writer, *believe*= be a believer in Christianity, *sing*=have the ability to sing. The transitive use, on the other hand, is always more limited or more concrete, on account of its being definitely associated with an object.

Note also the difference between *consult a person* (请教某人) and *consult with a person* (与某商议)/also *meet a person* (路上遇人), and *meet with an accident* (遇见某事；出事), plan *meets with success* (计划成功)/*know a person* (认识某人) and *know of a person* (闻名而未见面)/*shoot a person* (枪毙), but *shoot at a person* or *thing* (向某人或某物射击).

11.21. Intransitive Vbb. and Prepp.—Notice, however,

that the difference between an v.i. and a v.t. is often purely syntactic, with sole reference of the verb's ability or inability to take an object directly. An v.i. cannot have an object, but may have a prep. phrase modifying it. Thus, we cannot say *He comes the room,* but we can nevertheless say *He comes into the room.* Actually *He comes* (v.i.) *into the room* is the same as *He enters* (v.t.) *the room,* and *He was looking* (v.i.) *at the game* is the same as *He was watching* (v.t.) *the game.* Still, grammatically speaking, the intransitive actions of *coming* and *looking* are not supposed to have passed into the object directly, whereas the transitive actions of *entering* and *watching* are.

Owing to this difference, vv.i. are most frequently associated with definite prepp., so much so that the v.i. and the prep. often form a phrase with a very definite meaning. Thus *look at* means to watch, *look upon* (*it as shameful, as a failure*) means to regard, *look up to* means to respect, *look down upon* means to despise, *look into* (*a company's accounts*) means to examine, and *look for* means to search. From the student's point of view, the important thing is to observe the prep. associated with any v.i. and the new meaning which is thus developed. A good dictionary should always indicate what prepp. are used in what connexion.

The *Pocket* or *Concise Oxford Dictionary* always indicates clearly the prep. to be used in any particular connexion, and less clearly the transitive or intransitive use of the vbb. An illustration, with explanations, is given here, so that the student may derive full benefit from the use of these dictionaries. E. g., under *dig*, we are told (words in brackets [ ] are added for explanation):—
"v. i. & t." [v.i. and v.t.]... "Turn up (soil) with spade or other implement or claws &c." [v.t., because 'soil' is put in parentheses]...

"d. [=dig] the soil (*down, deep,* &c.)" [v.i., because 'the soil' is not put in parentheses]... "make (hole &c.) thus" [the fact that 'hole' is put in parentheses shows we can say 'dig a hole,' therefore v.t.]... "bring (buried object) *up* or *out* thus" [v.t.]... "make way *into* &c. thus" [v.i., we can say 'dig *into*']..."thrust (one's nails, point) *into* something or *in*" [v.t., we can say 'dig his nails *into* something' or 'dig it *in*']... "(fig.) [figuratively] make search (*for* facts &c., *into* documents &c.) or find *out* by search" [we can say 'dig *for* facts,' 'dig *into* documents,' both vv. i., but we can also say 'dig something *out*,' v.t.].

The student should therefore always make a mental note of the particular prepp. used in certain particular senses. Following is a selected list of some of the more useful or interesting combinations:—

care *for* person or thing
touch *upon* a topic (mention)
dilate *upon* topic
refer *to* a subject
hint *at* possible arrangement
insist *on* or *upon* something
persist *in* error
consist *of* parts, *in* do*ing*
desist *from* some attempt
refrain *from* bad language
refrain *from* do*ing*
shrink *from* something objectionable
laugh *at* person or thing
laugh *over* some joke
live *on* food, fruit, etc.
live *on* certain income
live *for* object in life
deal *with* person, *with* subject, *in* cloth, dry goods, etc.
hear *of* news, accident
hear *from* person (receive letters *from*)
die *of* illness, shame, *by* weapon, *from* a fall
improve *upon* something
bask *in* person's favour, *in* popularity, *in* sunshine
play *at* be*ing* a poet
pass *for* her husband (pretend to be)
confess *to* a feeling, a fault
dispose *of* subject, person
apply *to* person *for* permission
subscribe a newspaper, but subscribe *to* fund, *to* a view, theory
thing admits *of* no delay

agree *to* suggestion, *with* person, *on* some point
look *over* lesson
talk *over* matter
glance *through* a book, *at* a person
think *about* subject, *of* some one absent
reflect *upon* subject
quarrel *with* person, *at* some point, *on* some topic
remonstrate *with* person
reason *with* person
come *to* a bad situation
lead *to* a result
thing happens *to* person
stumble *upon* a discovery
idea occurs *to* person
revelation dawns *upon* person
fall *in* love, fall *out* (quarrel) *with* person
something falls *to* one's lot
burden falls *upon* person
wait *at* table, *on* or *upon* (serve) person, *for* person or thing
attend *to* business, guests
venture *upon* an undertaking
send *for* doctor
infringe *on* another's rights
consent *to* agreement, request
differ *from* another
crave *for*, long *for*, person or object
despair *of* object
aim *at* goal
comply *with* request
argue *with* person, *about* topic, *against* opponent
correspond *with* person, but *to* analogous part or parallel
abstain *from* drink, etc.
what becomes *of* person? (what has happened *to* him?)
object *to* proposal
proceed *with* business
count *on*, rely *on*, reckon *on*, depend *on*, support
matter calls *for* attention
yield *to* person or his demands
indulge *in* bad habits.
plunge *into* water, new subject, new business
linger *at* or *around* a place, *over* subject of discussion
cry *over* spilt milk
jump *at* conclusion
chase *after* bandit, girl
call *on* person

The above list gives only intransitive vbb. with their prepp. Adjj., participles and nn. also have their peculiar prepp. Sometimes two cognate words may require different prepp., as *derogate from* but *derogatory to a person's reputation.* Other words may require no prep. as vv. t., but require a prep. as

nn., e.g. *prefer something, but* shows *preference for desired object* / *This precedes that,* but *This takes precedence of that* / *consider the poor man,* but *show consideration for the poor* / *dislike a person,* but *conceive a dislike to* or *for a person* or *thing.*

11.22. Intransitive Vbb. Used Transitively.—There are certain cases where an v.i. is used transitively. These are different from the cases discussed in § 11.20, where the vb. is used as a v.t. in certain connexions, and as an v.i. in other connexions. Here we are discussing certain vv.i. used in some definite ways so that they still keep their meaning as vv.i., but can apparently have an object.

(1) First, we have cases like *dream a dream, die a natural (an easy) death, smile a (sweet) smile* and *sleep the sleep of the just* (i.e., sleep soundly like men without worry), where we do not have a real object, but what is really a **repetition** of the vb.

(2) Secondly, we have phrases like *smile consent* or *acquiescence,* which means to express consent or acquiescence by a smile. The consent is not "smiled," but is really only expressed by a smile. Other examples are:—

She *looked* her *consent.*
He *looked* the *thanks* he could not express.
He said nothing, but *looked* all *love* and *sympathy.*
Mr. Astor said nothing, but *laughed dissent* (showed his dissent by a laugh).

(3) Thirdly, and this is the most interesting type, we have cases like *sleep the day away, talk the night away, cry one's eyes out* and *talk the horse's hind leg off.* Notice that

in all these examples, the idea of *until* is understood (cry *until* one's eyes are out, and talk *until* the horse's hind leg is off). These may, therefore, be considered as one of the many ways for achieving **economy** in the English language. Notice that, in all the following examples, the object is some **n.** or pron. (often *oneself*) affected by the action, followed by some word or phrases describing the effect of the action.

Sleep the clock round (sleep until the clock comes round to the same point, i.e., twelve hours)
sleep off a headache, sleep the headache off
dream the hours away
cry one's heart out
cry oneself to sleep
laugh a person or idea out of court
laugh a person out of a bad habit
laugh him down (silence him by laughing)
look him into submission, into doing something
look yourself blind
look a person out of countenance
look one full in the face (This case does not imply any effect of the action)
eat oneself out of house and home (until one is broke)
drink oneself ill
drink oneself out of a job (until he loses it)
drink away the night
drink a person under the table (until he is drunk and fall under the table)
drink away one's reason
talk oneself hoarse (until one's voice is hoarse)
talk one's way to success (attain success by talking)
talk a child to sleep
talk black into white
talk one to death

talk him round (until he changes his opinion and agrees with you)
talk him down (until he yields or gives up)
talk her into marrying the butler

All these words, *sleep, dream, cry, laugh, look, eat, drink, talk,* are normally vv.i. in the sense in which they are used here.

Active and Passive

11.30. The Term "Voice."—A very important aspect of action, the distinction between active and passive, has been called "voice" in grammar. This name will do as well as any other term, so long as it is taken merely as an empty label. The use of the term, however, should not lead us into thinking that it is in any way different from the other "aspects," or that it has any mysterious function. Its function is merely to indicate an aspect of action. One should merely take it as a label, and not try to read any meaning into it. William James, in his *Talks to Teachers,* relates a story which shows the disastrous consequences of trying to read into the term "voice" an intelligible meaning. A teacher once said to a child, "Suppose that you kill me: you who do the killing are in the active voice, and I, who am killed, am in the passive voice.' "But how can you speak if you're killed?" said the child. "Oh, well, you may suppose that I am not yet quite dead!" The next day, the child was asked in class to explain the passive voice, and she said, "It's the kind of voice you speak with when you are not quite dead."*

11.31. Formation of the Passive.—A passive voice is

* Quoted by Jespersen, *The Philosophy of Grammar,* p. 164.

formed in English by using some form of the vb. *to be* and the past participle (p.p.). No matter how varied the passive forms may be, this formula remains unchanged. Compare the following changes of a vb. in the active and the parallel changes of the vb. *to be* in the passive, and see how exactly they correspond:—

	ACTIVE (Vb. varies)	PASSIVE (*To be* varies; p.p. unchanged)
Pres Indefinite.	I *see*	I *am* seen
Past Indefinite	I *saw*	I *was* seen
Future Indefinite	I *shall see*	I *shall be* seen
Pres. Perfect	I *have seen*	I *have been* seen
Past Perfect	I *had seen*	I *had been* seen
Future Perfect	I *shall have seen*	I *shall have been* seen
Present Contin.	I *am seeing*	I *am being* seen
Infinitive	*to see*	*to be* seen
Perfect Inf.	*to have seen*	*to have been* seen
Participle	*seeing*	*being* seen
Perfect Part.	*having seen*	*having been* seen

It will be seen that in the formation of the passive tenses, all that is necessary is to decline the vb. *to be* like any other vb. while keeping the p.p. unchanged.

Usually only transitive vbb. can be put in the passive voice, as we can easily turn the active *Jack kills* (v.t.) *Jill* into the passive *Jill is killed by Jack,* but we cannot easily make the active *I sleep* (v.i.) into a passive—*is slept by me,* which would be meaningless. Intransitive vbb. with prepp. following, however, may very well be put in the passive voice, as *The accounts must be looked into* (from the active *We must look into the accounts:* See § 12.41.).

Exercise 93. Transform the following active phrases into pas-

sive phrases. The active subject may be omitted for practice.

1. We *spent* a great deal of money.
2. We *have spent* a great deal of money.
3. They *give* him the rank of a minister.
4. They *have given* him, etc.
5. They *are giving him,* etc.
6. They *show* a picture to the audience.
7. They *will show* a picture, etc.
8. They *were showing* a picture, etc.
9. They *have* already *shown* a picture, etc.

10 *Having told.* *Considering.*
To tell. Without *seeing.*
To have told. *Having known.*
Must realize. *Is looking* for.
Should regard. *Will have finished.*

11.32. Use of the Passive.—Apparently there may not be any great difference between *Jack kills Jill* and *Jill is killed by Jack,* which seem to be two ways of saying the same thing. There are many cases, however, where the passive form is necessary or much more preferable to the active form. Thus when a reporter found a man murdered, without being able to learn who murdered him, evidently all he could report would be "A man *was murdered* in his flat on Avenue B——, etc." For in the passive voice, we can avoid mention of the subject (doer) of the action. Sometimes the doer is unknown (as in the above example), or very indefinite (*It is said*——by whom?), or well understood (*A student was dismissed*——by the school authorities, of course), or of less interest to the hearer and the speaker than the party affected by the action (*A house was burnt*——we are interested in the house burnt and not in the fire which burnt it). Sometimes it is indelicate to mention who was the author of a deed, as in the following

examples:—

So the Kuomintang *was turned* into a personal organ and China *was sold* through the disgraceful treaty.

I *was given* to understand——never mind by whom——that no more should be written or published in the papers on this topic.

Exercise 94. Learn to use the following very common passive expressions:—

It is said that
It is rumoured that
It is reported that
I have been told that
I am told that (to)
I am surprised to
I am accustomed to
He was annoyed at
She is disappointed to
No reason has been given
No arrangement has been made
It has been pointed out that
A plan has been suggested to
You are requested to
It is forbidden to
I have been asked to
It is proposed that
It is understood that
It has been decided that
Is considered to be
Is regarded as
Is supported by
Is rendered possible
The story is told that
The fact is established that
The news has been spread that
It is considered best that (to)
It should be remembered that
He has been invited to
A telegram was sent
A meeting will be held, etc.
A proposal has been made

11.33. Active and Passive Nn.—Although this chapter deals exclusively with aspects of vbb., it should be pointed out that nn. and adjj. often involve or imply active or passive action also. The English suffix *-er* or *-or* denotes the doer of a deed, while the suffix *-ee* denotes the receiver or the party affected by the action. Contrast—

employer — employee
payer — payee
lessor — lessee
vendor — vendee

addresser — addressee

Notice also *appointee* (person appointed), *nominee* (person nominated for office), *committee* (board to which certain duties are committed or entrusted), *referee* (judge of games, i. e., person to whom questions are referred). The suffix *-er* is very common, as in *fisher, teacher, singer, seeker, finder, receiver, sender, preacher, hawker, traveller, shopkeeper, hair-dresser, mixer* of drinks, *founder* of societies, *owner* of a car, *subscriber* to a paper. Note also *-or* in *instructor, professor, guarantor, sailor, confessor, debtor, creditor, originator*. The p.p. in *-ed* is often used as a n. to denote the passive subject, as *the accused* (i. e., the accused person), *the unemployed, the wounded, the deceased.*

11.34. Active and Passive Adjj.—Notice also the active and passive action implied in the adjj.—*contemptuous* (鄙视的)—*contemptible* (可鄙的); *desirous* 愿望)—*desirable* (合意的); *credulous* (轻信的) —*credible* (近情可信的); *incredulous* (怀疑的)—*incredible* (荒唐难信的); *forgetful* (易忘)—*unforgettable* (难忘); *respectful* (敬意的)—*respectable* (可敬的). The endings *-able, -ible* generally suggest the passive aspect (*eatable, audible, visible, countable, unbelievable, permissible, legible, questionable, understandable, intelligible, digestible*), but sometimes also suggest the active aspect (*susceptible*, capable of receiving; *perishable*, easy to perish; *forcible*, by use of force). Curiously enough, *suspicious* has both the active meaning of "prone to suspect" (*He is suspicious by nature*, 生性猜忌) and the passive meaning of "arousing suspicion" (*His conduct was very suspicious*, 形迹可疑). Chinese students often misunderstand the aspect denoted by the words *fearful, frightful, terrible*, etc. It is wrong to say *I am very fearful* for *I fear*

very much (a *thing*, it, is fearful, but a *person* fears). Thus we have—

Incorrect	*Correct*
I am very terrible	I am very much terrified
I am very frightful	I am very much frightened
I am very delightful	I am very delighted
I am very interesting	I am very interested
I am very exciting	I am very excited

A good dictionary generally indicates whether an adj. is applicable to a person or a thing. Thus a person may be *anxious* (人焦急), but a thing or a situation cannot (事急 = "critical").* A thing may be *interesting*, but generally a person is only *interested*, unless he is interesting (as an author or friend) to others. A scene or situation may be *reminiscent* of some former situation (令人回忆往事), but a person usually cannot be *reminiscent*, he can only be *reminded* of that former situation (回忆往事). Again, a thing or arrangement may be *satisfactory*, but the person is *satisfied*. The student should form the habit of watching whether an adj. is applicable to persons, or to things, or to both.

The very important difference between present participle (active) and past participle (passive) has already been made clear in § 2.33. (*a terrifying noise*, but *a terrified look*, etc.)

11.35. False Active.—It is gratifying to find another instance of English economy here. Just as the Englishman says *sleep the clock round* in preference to the longer *sleep*

* By a trick of idiom, we can say, however, *an anxious moment*. This twist of logic is also found in phrases like *a lazy time*, *a dying wish*, *easy money*, already mentioned under § 9.20.

until the clock comes round, so he says *The wall looks gloomy* instead of *The wall seems dirty when you look at it,* although we know very well that a wall never does any looking. Here we have a case of **false active**, used to circumvent the more clumsy expression made necessary by employing the more logical passive.

Not every vb., but only certain ones, can be used this way, and these are so indicated in a dictionary. Following are the more common examples:—

The book *sells* well (really it is sold).
The poem *reads* smoothly (is smooth when you read it).
This pen *writes* very smoothly (really you write with it).
The song *sounds* very beautiful.
That rose *smells* wonderful(ly).
This fish *smells* awful(ly).
This chicken *tastes* delicious.
This window *looks* out on a patch of green lawn.
This stove *cooks* very well.
The sofa *measures* twelve feet.
Mine *compares* favourably with yours.
This kind of cloth *washes* well (stands washing).
This pipe does not *draw* easily (you cannot draw the smoke through it easily).

Complete and Incomplete Action

11.40. Complete and Incomplete Action.—Expressions like *I have eaten* and *He has come back* belong to the **conclusive aspect,** for they signify that an action has been completed. Here the important idea indicated is not the action in itself, but rather a condition as a result of the action: not that

I ate or *He came back*, but that I am in the condition of having eaten (not hungry) or he is in the condition of having come back (not away or abroad). Such expressions indicate, therefore, **a present condition as the result of some past action.**

This form, called the "perfect tense," therefore belongs to the conclusive aspect (indicating completed action) and does not primarily refer to time. We could have the same aspect either in the present (*I have eaten*), in the past (*I had eaten*) or in the future (*I shall have eaten*). It is much clearer to separate the two notions of time and aspect, instead of confusing them under the notion of "tense," which is really time and aspect combined.

The Chinese particle *liao* (了, unstressed [lə]) exactly indicates this conclusive aspect, and not the past time merely. 下雨了 means that it is raining now, that it has begun to rain, and not that it rained. 快要下雨了 means that we have already reached the condition now that rain is falling soon (present condition as a result of possible future action). Compare also 米快要完了, which means that rice is running out now, that we haven't got much rice left. 事不成了，事糟了 (*The plan is doomed to failure* / *The thing has been spoilt*) also indicate the conclusive aspect.

11.41. Present Perfect and Adv. of Time.—Because of this fact that the present perfect indicates a present condition, we cannot, according to the English usage, use it with advv. denoting past time, although we know very well that the action took place in the past. One cannot say *I have come back yesterday*. The action, it is true, took place in the past (therefore one can say *I came back yesterday*), but we are

speaking of the present condition (therefore one should say *I have come back now*).

Exercise 95. It is most easy to make such mistakes by inserting an adv. denoting some past time when the action really took place. Correct the following sentences, if they are wrong:—

1. I have met him several times this week.
2. I have met him several times last week.
3. He has lost some money in business last year.
4. We have talked over this matter in his house last night.

11.42. Use of the Perfect.— (1) The following examples illustrate the **proper use of the perfect tense.** Notice that they indicate a condition, or a man's experience, record, or achievement covering a long period.

What *have* you *got* there? **(present condition)**
I'*ve forgotten* what he said in the letter. (**present condition:** compare "I *forgot* to tell you.")
I *have* not *seen* more than three such vases in my life-time. **(long experience)**
He *has travelled* a great deal. (**present condition: He** knows a great deal about foreign countries.)
I *have known* him for a long time. (**long experience:** for this and the following two examples, see §11.61, "4")
I *have* always *regarded* you as the ablest man of the party. **(long period)**
I *have* always *wanted* to see you.
He *has* repeatedly *captured* the first prize in college contests.
In his service as a diplomat, he *has shaken* hands with kings and queens, (*has*) *sat* at the same table with the greatest poets and philosophers, and (*has*) *seen* all that is worth seeing in the country. (**experience**)
The affair *has turned* out differently from what he expected.
I *have said* what I wanted to say.

S—— *has graduated* from Nankai. (i.e., He has the **standing** [资格] of a Nankai graduate: compare "He ***graduated*** from Nankai last summer.")

We *have worked* together and *played* together as children; we have *quarrelled* and *made up* many times, but we *have* never *ceased* to be very fond of each other. **(long period)**

He *has written* several volumes of poetry. **(record)**

He *has studied* at Oxford and Berlin, two of the best universities in Europe. (This is his **standing**, but in answer to the question "Where did he study?" one merely says "He ***studied***, etc.")

The mother says, "I have *cared for* him, *sent* him to college, and *given* him the best of everything in life."

(2) The **difference between present perfect and past indefinite** is illustrated in the following imaginary dialogue:—

Scrupps: Where's Thomas?
Howard: He *has gone* away. (*present condition*)
Scrupps: I didn't know that. When *did* he *go*? (*past action*)
Howard: He *went* away on Monday. (*past action*)
Scrupps: What's he doing? *Have* you *got* any news from him? (*present condition*)
Howard: Yes. He *sent* me a telegram from Cologne. (*past action*)

The points of difference are, therefore: (1) the present perfect refers to the **present**, while the past indefinite refers to the **past**; (2) the present perfect denotes a **condition** while the past indefinite (except with the vb. *to be*) denotes an **action**; and (3) consequently, the present perfect covers a **long period** of time, while the past indefinite (generally) refers to a **short point** of time. We say "*Did you see the President?*" when we mean to ask whether he saw him or not (as an

action), but "*Heve you seen T—— lately?*" when we mean to ask whether for the last few days (an extended period) he has seen T——. Consequently, we can say "*I saw him just now,*" or "*I just saw him*" (point of time), but *I have not seen him for a long time* (period of time). Notice also such idiomatic expressions:—

This is the best book he ever *wrote.*
But: Of all the books he *has* ever *written,* this is the best.
It was the longest funeral procession I ever *attended.*
But: Of all the funeral procession I *have* ever *attended,* this was the longest.

(3) **In connexion with** "since," we always say that since some time ago or since something *happened* (point of time), something else *has happened* (period of time): *Since he arrived yesterday, he has not been seen.* This means that he *arrived,* say, at six in the afternoon yesterday (point of time), but that from that time till the present (a long period) he *has* not *been seen.* Study the following examples:—

Since that quarrel (**Since** they *quarrelled*), they *have* never *met* (or *spoken* to each other) again.
I *have* not *been* able to write a single word **since** last week.
Lord Lytton *has made* half a dozen calls **since** his arrival.
There *have been* three floods in China **since** 1910.
Husbands and wives *have quarrelled* **since** human marriage *began.*
Man *has sinned* **since** the world *began.*
I *have* not *been* to Europe **since** I *returned* in 1910.
He *has joined* the communists **since** his mother *died.*
Many things *have happened* **since** you *went* away.
He *was* once *bitten* by a dog during his childhood, and **since** then, he *has* never *dared* to come near a dog.

The patient *has made* great progress **since** he *entered* the hospital.

(4) The **past perfect** indicates the conclusive aspect in some past time, e.g.—

He *had arrived* before me (*or* before I arrived).
When I arrived, he *had signed* the check already.
It *had begun* to rain before I started, so I was well provided.
They *had decided* to go already, so I could not say anything.
The girl *had been neglected* by her aunt with whom she was living (consequently she looked very thin, etc.).
I *had* not *been* able to send him any money.
Still he *had* not *appeared.*
I did not go to meet him, because I *had* not *been* notified.

Very often, phrases like *I had intended, I had expected* are used to indicate that what was intended or expected never took place.

I *had intended* to call on you yesterday afternoon (but some friend called, so I was not able to go).
I *had expected* some help from him (which never came).
I *had thought* some sort of arrangement might be made (but later realized that this was impossible).

(5) The **future perfect** indicates the conclusive aspect in some future time. e.g.—

At fifty, you *will have made* enough money to retire comfortably.
By that time, Freddie *will have grown* up into a big boy, and Eda most probably *will have married.*
You post this letter now, so that when you go to see him the day after tomorrow, he *will* surely *have received* the letter already.

(6) **"Have had," "had had."** Chinese students are often puzzled by this combination. Really it is very simple, for the first word, *have,* serves as an auxiliary (as in *have come*) and the second word, *had,* serves as a principal vb. In English, *have* as a principal vb. can even be put in the passive voice:

Flour *can be had* at 10 cents a pound.
Nothing is *to be had* there (=There is nothing to buy at that place).

Hence its use as a principal vb. in *have had* (for the present) and *had had* (for the past) is easy to understand.

Look here, we'*ve had* enough of this. (Don't make any more trouble.)
Have you *had* your dinner? Thanks, I'*ve had* mine already.
Waley *had had* (i.e., had gone through) a most unpleasant experience in his first African trip.

Exercise 96. Study the following, giving your reasons for the use of the perfect tense or the past indefinite, and correct the sentences if they are wrong:—

1. *Haven't* you *eaten* enough at last night's dinner?
2. I always *regarded* (*have regarded*?) this as a risky business.
3. While he was principal of the middle school, he *has* always *been* on the best terms with the Bureau of Education.
4. The company became bankrupt, and as a result, the outstanding debts *are* (*were*? *have been*?) left unpaid.
5. A great deal *was* (*has been*?) written on the subject of extraterritoriality.
6. News *has been* (*was*?) received from home saying that his grandmother is dead.
7. The patient *recovered* (*is recovering*? *has recovered*?) since he came under my treatment.

8. This was the second marriage for both the bride and bridegroom. They both *had* (*had had*?) a most unhappy marital experience. Both *were* (*had been*?) very unhappy in their first marriage. Since the second marriage, they *live* (*have lived*? *are living*?) most happily together.
9. Of course your suggestion was received with great applause. Nobody *had thought* of it before.
10. *Have* you *seen* the famous spiritualist when he was in Shanghai last December?

11.43. Incompletion: Use of the Progressive.—There are two tense-forms belonging to the **non-conclusive aspect:** (1) the "continuous" or "progressive" (*I am writing* / *You are listening*) and (2) the "perfect continuous" (*I have been writing* / *You have been listening*).

The **present progressive,** rather than the present indefinite, is the regular form used for present action, as shown already in § 11.10. We say, "At this moment, some people *are dying* (not *die*), some *are being married* (not *are married*) and some *are being born* (not *are born*) into this world." We also say, "Look here, I *am holding* (not *I hold*) this book."

The **past progressive** indicates that something was going on,—more commonly that something *was going on* while something else *happened*. E.g.—

I *was reading* upstairs, when I *heard* the windows shaking and bottles clinking in the cupboard.

They *were dancing* and *drinking*, when the police *broke in*.

I *was waiting* in the station when I *saw* a woman's face, which seemed very familiar to me.

I *was looking* at the sailing clouds when some one *slapped* me on the back.

Notice the position of *when* in the above examples which is different from its position in Chinese. This is more common than the other arrangement: *When I was looking..., some one slapped....*

Exercise 97. Translate the following into English, taking care where you put the word *when.*

1. 正在徬徨不定(hesitating)之时，我们看见前面一辆汽车开来。
2. 他正讲了一半，他的太太走出来了。
3. 我正坐在大椅上看报，忽然A跑进来。
4. 我们都已熟睡了，忽然听见窗外哔剥的响。

11.44. Participles and the Conclusive Aspect.—It is the peculiarity of the passive voice that it generally implies completed action. When a thing "is done," then it is done already. If a man "is killed," then he is already killed. If a jar is broken, it is broken already, or if a watch is lost, it is already lost. Expressions of non-conclusive passive voice are comparatively rare, like *A man is being killed, A picture is being shown at the theatre.*

Hence it is that the past participle (used in the passive voice) implies completed action (conclusive aspect) while the present participle (used in the progressive tense) implies incomplete action (non-conclusive aspect). (There is, of course, the further difference that the present participle indicates the active aspect, while the past participle the passive aspect.) Thus by *boiling water,* we mean water which is still boiling, while by *boiled water,* we mean water which has been boiled. *A returning traveller* is still on his way, while *a returned student* has already returned to his home country. Contrast also *the growing boy* and *the grown-up man.* (See § 2.33.)

In order to express the non-conclusive aspect with the

passive voice, we have to use the word *being: the officer being elected, the course being decided upon.* Hence we have the following scheme:—

	Conclusive	Non-Conclusive
Active	having elected	electing
Passive	elected (*or* having been elected)	being elected

Exercise 98. Study the following and see whether they are conclusive or non-conclusive:—

1. The man being looked for.
2. The watch lost yesterday.
3. The party exploring the North Pole.
4. The company being formed.
5. The company formed.
6. The judge passing the verdict.
7. The man being tried.
8. The man being held for ransom.
9. The problem being discussed.
10. The house being built.
11. A person having held three posts successively.
12. A person holding three posts now.
13. Three battles fought and won.

Beginning, Continuation and End

11.50. Beginning, Continuation and End.—The three aspects of beginning, continuation and end (*inceptive, continuative* and *cessative*) are expressed in English by means of the expressions: (1) *begin to, begin—ing,* (2) *keep—ing,* etc. and (3) *stop—ing,* or *cease—ing.*

(1) Begin to, etc. This aspect seems to be used in

English to a greater extent than in Chinese. On this account, it should be more carefully studied. Say "I begin to suspect" and "I am beginning to think" (疑心起来，正萌此意) instead of "I suspect" and "I think" when the suspicion or change of opinion is a gradual process. Other examples are:—

begin to realize	am beginning to suspect
began to understand	am beginning to fear
began to get tired of	is beginning to decay
began to repent	has begun to be talked about
begin to think otherwise	had begun to play

Begin followed by a vb. in *—ing* is also often used: ***begin building at once, began telling me a story, began washing his car.***

(2) Keep —ing, etc.

keep going	remain sitting
don't keep telling me that	remain living with him
keep on talking	continue standing

We can say *continue to talk* or *continue talking,* but not *keep to* or *remain to talk.* The double advv. *on and on* are often used: *He talked on and on/He ran on and on.*

(3) Stop —ing: stop to. These two expressions have opposite meanings. *You never stop to think* means that you keep on going ahead and never think, while *you never stop thinking* means that you are thinking all the time. On the other hand, *cease praying* and *cease to pray* both mean the same thing, i.e., stop praying.

He did not even *stop to take* a drink.

A never *stopped to look* at a lady; B never *stopped looking* at ladies.

I have never *stopped* (*ceased*) *loving* you.
Many people *cease to study* when they have *ceased going* to school.
H—— has never *ceased to believe* in you.
Unless you two *stop fighting*, I will call in the police.

Durative and Punctual

11.60. Point of Time and Period of Time.—In point of duration, actions may be regarded as "punctual" (taking place at a point of time) or "durative" (extending over a period). Understanding of this aspect is very important for the proper use of vbb. The difference is illustrated in two sentences already given above:—

Husbands and wives *have quarrelled* **(durative)** since human marriage *began* **(punctual).** (§11.42, "3")
I *was reading* **(durative)** upstairs, when I *heard* **(punctual)** the windows shaking, etc. (§11.43)

This durative-punctual aspect is also to be observed in the employment of phrases like *begin to.* It is more exact to say *From that day, he began to lose hope,* than merely *he lost hope.* For losing hope is a long process covering an extended period, whereas the phrase *began to* expresses what took place at a given point of time (*that day*). So also, it is more exact to say, "*From the third day, the patient began to recover,* than *the patient recovered.* The process of recovering requires an extended period of days or weeks, whereas beginning to recover could take place at any given point of time.

Only a part of the vbb. in the indefinite refer to a point of time, while all the perfect, continuous and perfect continuous tenses refer to an extended period.

11.61. Punctual and Durative Vbb.—In English, we could find many pairs of vbb. or verbal phrases expressing almost the same meaning, but belonging to different durative aspects. Thus we "got acquainted" with a person at a particular time, and then we "know" him for the rest of our days: *got acquainted* is **punctual,** while *know* is **durative.** After one once "falls in love" (**punctual**), then he "is in love" for a long time (**durative**). We may "wake a man up" in a second, but he may continue to "lie awake" for the whole night. Other examples are: *get* (punctual)—*have* (durative) / *learn* (p.)—*know* (d.) / *remind* (p.)—*remember* (d., also p.) / *receive* (p.)—*keep* (d.) / *get frightened* (p.)—*fear* (d.) / *arrive* (p.)—*stay* (d.). The vb. *to be* best represents the durative vbb., while the vb. *to do* best represents the punctual vbb. When a man *is* lazy or dishonest, he is lazy or dishonest even in his sleep. On the other hand, a man may *steal* something today and yet not steal anything tomorrow. Very often we dislike a person not for what he *does,* but for what he *is.* Some typical examples of punctual vbb. worth noticing are given below:—

That *reminds* me I have still two letters to write.
It *occurred* to me we might send Miss Ch— along.
He *went* to bed and *fell* asleep. (The proper way to say 睡觉了 in English is to use *is asleep, is sleeping* or *has fallen asleep.*)
I *came* to the conclusion that... (Seldom *I concluded.*)

The practical consequences of this distinction between punctual and durative vbb. are four. (1) In order to express durative actions with punctual vbb., we have to use any of the durative tenses (perfect, continuous, perfect continuous). Thus *come* is a punctual vb., but we can express an extended

action with it by saying, for instance, *I've come to know him.* *Stop* is also a punctual vb., but we can say *I have never stopped loving you,* which refers to a long period.

(2) In order to express punctual actions with durative vbb., we have to use helping phrases like *came to, began to.* Thus *know* is a durative vb., while the act of beginning to know (punctual) may be expressed by such phrases as *came to know, learnt to know, began to know.*

(3) Many durative vbb. like *know, understand, think, believe, regard, consider, value, despise, hate, love, fear* are in themselves sufficient to indicate their durative nature. These words generally do not require the continuous tense to express an extended condition. E.g., *I know* (never *I am knowing*) *you are wrong* / *I despise* (never *am despising*) *that fellow* / *I believe* (not *am believing*) *he is in love.*

(4) With these same vbb., the perfect may serve to express what is usually expressed by the perfect continuous.

I *have known* him for years. (Really equivalent to *I have been making friends with him for years. I have been knowing* is not English. *I have known him,* although in "perfect" tense, does not imply that the act of knowing him is finished or "perfect." I still know him now.)

I *have* always *believed* in your innocence. (This does not mean I have stopped believing in you.)

I *have* always *regarded* you as a talented beggar. (And am still regarding you that way now.)

He *has remained* a symbol of honesty and purity to me.

He *has* always *stood* at the head of his class.

11.62. Duration in Prepp.—Prepp., too, are affected by the distinction between point of time and period of time. Of

those indicating point of time, *at* and *on* are the most typical, while the more common words used to indicate period of time are *in, during* and *pending*. We say, for instance, *at nine o'clock in the morning;* also *at sunrise, at sunset, at midnight*, but *in* or *during the night*. The use of *on* is worth noticing. It is selective. Just as we think of a bird alighting *on* a tree (rather than another tree), so we think of a thing as happening *on* a certain day rather than another day (especially when we say *Christmas falls on Friday*). In this sense, Friday or any day is regarded really as a point of time in comparison with other days. So we say *on that morning, on that evening*, when we regard it as one morning or evening among others, but *in the morning, in the evening* when we regard it in itself as a long period. Notice also the phrase *once upon a time.*

During more clearly covers the whole period mentioned: *during the evening, during the week, during the meeting. Pending* means "during the interval until": *Pending his arrival* (from this time until he comes), *we shall go on as usual. In the course of* implies any point during a period: *I shall pay you in the course of next week. By* suggests the passing of time: *By that time you will be quite a rich man* means that you will be getting richer and richer as time goes on, until that time mentioned when you will be quite rich. *Have the dress finished by Saturday* means by Saturday at the latest, and earlier if you can.

Habitual Action

11.70. Habitual Action.—One of the uses of the present

indefinite in English is to indicate habitual action: *Do you smoke?* / *She sings* / *We play tennis everyday.* These indicate present habits, but the action is not necessarily limited to the present moment. *We play tennis everyday* implies that we played yesterday also. In the case of *She sings,* the meaning is *She can sing,* or *She is a singer,* implying an ability which is not limited to the present only. Some more examples are given below: note that really present action is indicated by the present continuous, as explained in § 11.10.

He *gets* up at eight and *goes* to bed at ten **(habitual)**. Contrast: He *is getting* up now **(present)**.
The boy *goes* to school (i.e., he is a schoolboy—**habitual**). Contrast: The boy *is going* to school **(present)**.
She *sends* him letters everyday **(habitual)**. Contrast: She *is sending* (or *has sent*) a letter to him **(present)**.
The boat *sails* fourteen miles an hour (has the **capacity**). Contrast: The boat *is sailing* north **(present)**.
Do you *go* to church? **(habitual)**. Contrast: *Did* you *go* to church? **(past action)** or, *Are* you *going* to church now? **(present)**.
Smithey never *yields* **(habitual)**. But he *is yielding* now **(present)**.
Joey *swears* terribly (has the **habit** of using bad language).

For **past habitual action,** the most general way is to use the phrase *used to.*

We *used to* play together
They *used to* live in the same room.
The boat *used to* run between Tientsin and Shanghai.
She *used to* stop at Tsingtao for a day or two.
We *used to* let off fire-crackers and make new year calls on New Year's Day.

There *used to* be a boat race on the Dragon Boat Festival.
The Chinese emperor *used to* get up at four o'clock in the morning and hold audience with his ministers.
We *used to* meet every Saturday evening in his house.

Strange to say, the negative form (logically *did not use to*) is unknown, while *never used to* and *used not to* are felt to be awkward. The negative can be expressed by *usually not*, or simply by *never: Usually he did not turn up / He never smoked.*

The passive form *be used to* requires a n. after it: *I am used to that sort of treatment*. It can be used affirmatively or negatively (*I am not used to that sort of treatment*), and for any time (*I was not used to sleeping on wooden boards*). From this we get the expression *get used to: He got used to her piano music and she got used to his smoke / We can easily get used to your pronunciation.*

Tentative Action

11.80. Tentative Action.—This aspect is known in Chinese, but never employed to the same extent as in English. The usual form is *try to*, with the emphatic forms *attempt to* and *make an effort to*. Thus a phrase like *tried to capture the city* is very difficult to translate exactly into Chinese. It may or may not be implied in the phrase 来攻某城攻下与否未曾言明), while 试攻某城 is simply not Chinese. The Chinese language provides clearly only for the successful or conclusive aspect: 攻下. Thus *try to persuade* and *persuade* may be translated by 劝 and 劝动了. But how shall one translate such phrases as *try to work hard, try to do your best?*

Notice also the English expressions *tend to* and *be in-*

clined to:—The movies tend to encourage crime / He is inclined to be lazy. These also express the non-conclusive aspect, and are also difficult to translate idiomatically.

On the other hand, we have another form of tentative action expressed in Chinese as represented by 尝一尝, 试一试, 打一打, 敲一敲, 碰一碰, 走一走, 问一问. This may properly be called the **casual** aspect, implying that the action is done casually, without any serious purpose. 跟他讲一讲, 说一说 means try to persuade him, and if he won't listen, then give up. In English, the nearest approach to this aspect is seen in *take a look* (看一看), *have a taste* (尝一尝), *give it a trial* (试一试) and *have a go at it* (碰一碰造化).

Miscellaneous Minor Aspects

11.90. Causative, Reiterative, Reflexive and Reciprocal.— There are a number of other minor aspects.

(a) **Causative action.** This involves two forms: either we cause a person *to do* something, or we cause something *to be done:* either *We have the shoemaker repair the shoes,* or *We have the shoes repaired by the shoemaker.* Both forms have already been fully examined in § 9.91.

(b) **Reiterative action.** In English, this is sometimes expressed through the prefix *re-*, as in *reiterate, repeat, rebuild, readdress, reconvert, reconsider, reassemble, reorganize, revalue, re-enter, reopen.* This prefix *re-* is a living one in English, as it can be attached to any vb. with the senses *once more, again, repeatedly,* and *back to some former state.* Sometimes the reiteration is expressed by the adv. phrases

again and again, over and over again, as in *He asked the question again and again.*

(c) Reflexive and reciprocal action. An action may have direct bearing on the doer (subject) himself (*Save yourself that trouble*), in which case it is called "reflexive"; or if there are two or more subjects, the action may have a mutual bearing (*Tell one another stories*), in which case it is called "reciprocal." The expression of these two aspects has already been studied in § 7.23 ("Reflexive and Reciprocal Pronouns").

CHAPTER XII

SUBJECT AND OBJECT

(*TRANSITIVE ACTION*)

12.10. Subject and Doer.—We shall now see the relation between the subject, the object, and the vb. of action. It should be realized that the "subject" of a vb. and the "doer" of an action are not always the same thing. It is true that, ordinarily, the subject is the doer of an action, as in *He teaches English / She plays the piano.* But in the passive voice, we immediately see that this is not true, as in *I am told,* and *the officer has been impeached,* where the subjects *I* and *officer* do nothing whatsoever, but are only affected by the actions mentioned. Also in *This is a book,* no action is implied at all: the subject *this* does nothing.

A subject is usually defined as the person or thing we talk about, while all that is said about the subject is called the predicate (vb. and object included). This general definition will do for practical purposes, although in *He teaches English,* we really talk about the teaching (vb.) and what is taught (object), as well as about the person who does the teaching (subject).

It should be realized, therefore, that the notion "subject" is purely grammatical. It indicates merely a certain grammatical function in a sentence. English vbb. always require a subject whereas Chinese vbb. don't. In English

we say *It rains,* although we do not know what rains, perhaps "heaven," perhaps (still better) the rain itself. In Chinese, we are not compelled to find or express the subject of the vb. when it does not exist, as, for instance, in 下雨了 (compare 雨下了), 不行了,不对了. We also say 有一次, 有一天 where we do not really know what is the subject of the vb. 有.

12.11. Object and Party Affected.—The object is always the party affected by the action. In *He told me,* of course the object *me* indicates the person affected by the act of telling. But, conversely, the party affected is not always the object: it may be the subject of a passive vb., as *I* in *I am told.* Notice also that, with the vb. *to be*, where no action is indicated, there is no party affected, and consequently no "object," but only a "complement": as in *He is her husband,* where *her husband* merely completes the meaning of *is* (see § 9.90).

An object is affected by an action usually, but not always, as the receiver of the action. In *He opens the door,* of course the object *door* directly receives the action, as it were. But there are two special kinds of objects, which are affected in a different way. The first is the **object of result,** as in *dig a grave,* where the grave is the result of the digging. There was no grave until some one dug it, and consequently there was really nothing there to be affected by the action. Examples of this kind of object are *We make cakes* / *They form a circle* / *He writes a letter* / *He paints flowers.* The other kind, which may be called the **repetitive object,** really repeats the vb. only, as in *She dreamed a dream* / *He smiled a smile* / *They fight a good fight.* This is very similar, logically, to the conception that *Rain rains* or *Snow snows* (although we merely say

It snows, It rains in English).

12.12. Grammatical Subjects and Objects.—It has already been pointed out that the terms "subject" and "object" merely indicate grammatical functions. Further illustrations will make this clear. In "The statue *stands* (in the yard)", "The mountain *stretches* (to the north)," "The street *turns* (to the right)," and "The bridge *spans* (the river)," "The food *agrees* (with my stomach)," none of these things, statue, mountain, street, bridge or food, really does anything at all. With abstract nn. this is still clearer: "The question *arises*," "School *opens*," "The semester *begins*," "The problem *includes* (many factors)," "A lawsuit *drags on*, or *hangs on* (for years)." Here the subjects are really incapable of any action.

In the same way, in *We hold a meeting*, it is hard to see how we can do anything to the object "meeting," or in *Give him a warning* or *Teach him a lesson*, how the warning or the lesson is affected by the man who wants to give or teach it. In *take a bath, take a look, take a seat*, do we really do anything to "the bath," "the look" or "the seat"? And in *He cut a funny figure*, just how was that imaginary thing "figure" affected by the person who "cut" it?

All these show that the relationships indicated by the "subjects" and "objects" are merely grammatical. It is advisable therefore to distinguish between the "doer" of an action and the "subject" of a vb. on the one hand, and on the other, between the "party affected" by the action and the "object" of the vb. The terms "doer" and "party affected" are notional, while the terms "subject" and "object" are grammatical.

NOTE.—It is considered advisable to avoid the terms "logical subject" and "psychological subject" which mean so many different things with different grammarians. Sometimes these are used to donote the psychologically most *important* or most *prominent* word (He is *wrong* / I am *right*), sometimes to denote what comes first (*They* saw him / *She* married him), sometimes what is already known, with what is less well known as the predicate (*He* was her brother), sometimes the doer (He was loved by his *father*), sometimes the word stressed (You can't deceive *me*), etc. Used in these senses, a "psychological subject" is merely like a focussed point in a given picture, and it will never be possible to limit that focus to just any one word. Very often the whole sentence forms a unified concept with no central focus or with an even focus, where we should have to admit that the whole sentence is the subject, which would be absurd, grammatically speaking. Such problems belong more properly in the province of logic.

Kinds of Subject

12.20. Kinds of Subject.—The kinds of subject in the English language are represented by the following examples:—

(Noun)	The *garden* is in bloom.
(Verbal N.)	*Fishing* is a pleasant pastime.
(Pronoun)	*He* was a fool. *It* is winter.
(Infinitive)	*To talk* is easy; *to act*, difficult.
(Noun Clause)	*How he did it* I can't understand.
	Whether he did it or not is none of my business.
	That this is wrong is admitted.
	Who breaks pays.
	Who steals my purse steals trash.

These are the standard types.

Bearing the distinction between grammatical and notional

categories in mind, we may discuss a few cases where notionally some subjects are implied which are not so expressed in English. We have the following forms expressing about the same thing:—

(A) *Who believes such a story* is a fool.
(B) *He who believes this story* is a fool.
(C) *He* is a fool *to believe this story.*
(D) *He* is a fool *if he believes this story.*

Grammatically speaking, in "A," *who believes such a story* is the subject: in "B," *he* is the subject, with the relative clause *who believes this story* modifying it: in "C," *he* is the subject with the infinitive phrase *to believe this story* modifying the vb. *is:* and in "D," *he* is again the subject, with the subjunctive clause *if he believes thi sstory* modifying the vb. *is.* This is all very correct, because if he did not believe this story, he would not *be* a fool. The infinitive phrase in "C" and the *if*-clause in "D" therefore properly modify the vb. *is,* and not the subject *he.* But, notionally, don't they come to the same thing as *he who believes this story* in "B" where the *who*-clause modifies the subject *he* and not the vb. *is?* And, notionally, is not *he who believes this story* in "B" as much the subject of *is* as *who believes such a story* in "A"? Do not—

Believing this story, he is a fool
and *If he believes this story,* he is a fool

really say the same thing? So it is correct to say that, in *He is a fool if he believes this story,* we really mean he-who-believes-this-story is a fool. Therefore, notionally speaking, *he-who-believes-this-story* is the subject of the vb. *is.*

12.21. "It" as Subject.—(a) In the following sentences,

the words in italics indicate the real, though not the grammatical, subject of the vb.—

> It is wrong *to tell a lie.*
> It is true *that I dislike him.*

These mean the same thing as—

> *To tell a lie* is wrong.
> *That I dislike him* is true.

The form with *it* as the grammatical subject is used because it is much more convenient to dispose of the short predicate first and then state the long subject afterwards. It seems as if we were to say *It is wrong* and then, in answer to the question "What is *it?*" say: *to tell a lie. To tell a lie* is therefore, said to be "in apposition" to the subject *it.* In *It is true that I dislike him,* the subject *it* may be considered as the "antecedent" of the relative clause *that I dislike him.* (See § 7.45 for further examples.)

(b) *It* is also often used without any clear meaning, but merely to satisfy the English grammatical requirement for a subject, as in *It rains / It was winter / It is never too late to mend.* We really do not know, and do not care to know, *what* is never too late to mend, or *what* was winter.

12.22. "There is."—The peculiar construction *there is* corresponds to the Chinese *yu* (有): *There is a boy* (=有一小孩). In such sentences, we are forced to assume that the n. following *there is* is the subject: thus in *There is a boy, boy* is the subject, and *is* the vb. Really it does not mean quite the same thing as *A boy is there.* Phonetically, *there* in *there is, there are* is always pronounced without stress or accent: [ðə] ([ðəˈriz], and [ðəˈrɑː] or [ðərə]). This is especially

clear in the sentence—

There is a boy there.

The first *there* is pronounced [ðər], while the second *there* [ðεə]. The second *there* serves as a complement to indicate a place, while the first *there* indicates nothing at all.

(NOTE.—In *there's*, the pronunciation is usually [ðəεz], sometimes [ðəz]).

In *Let there be light, there* sounds suspiciously like a n. (compare *Let it be done*). However, we are still forced to call it something other than a n., and analyze the sentence as *Let light be there.* It would be much better to regard *there is* or *there be* as a compound vb. deserving to be written as one word and meaning "exist." *Let there be light* means "Let light exist," or "Let light come into being (or existence)."

Transitive Action and Objects

12.30. Transitive Action.—A transitive vb. may have an object (*I kill—I kill him*), but an intransitive vb. cannot (*He is sleeping*). It has already been mentioned (§ 11.21) that this distinction between vv.t. and vv.i. is also purely grammatical. A transitive action is supposed to pass in some way or other into its object, while an intransitive action is not: *I see the boy,* but *I slept.* Now it is quite clear that in *I kill him,* the action passes into the object *him,* but in *I see the boy,* does the action really pass into the boy? Note also that *enter* is a v.t. (*He enters the room*) and that *come* is an v.i. (*He comes into the room*), but is there actually any difference between *He enters the room* and *He comes into the*

room? Therefore it is clear that the difference is not logical, but grammatical. The grammatical difference is that an intransitive vb. requires a prep. to enable it to be connected with any object, while a transitive vb. does not.

12.31. Direct and Indirect Objects.—A v.t. may have two objects at the same time. In *I give you a knife, knife* is called the direct object, and *you* the indirect object. It really means "I give the knife *to you*." The person to whom or for whom a thing is done is said to be the indirect object. Thus an indirect object is really an object with a hidden prep. (*to* or *for*). According to English idiom, we usually drop the prep., whenever possible, and place the indirect object before the direct object, *Buy me a new hat* is more idiomatic than *Buy a new hat for me*. Study the following:—

Will you do *me* a favour? (Not: "Will you do a favour for me?")
Send *him* the story. (Not: "Send the story to him.")
Wish *me* good luck. (Not: "Wish good luck to, *or* for, me.")
Pay *him* the money. (Not: "Pay the money to him.")
You do *me* a great honour. (Not: "You do a great honour to me.")
Save *me* the trouble. (Not: "Save the trouble for me.")
Save *him* some money. (Not: "Save some money for him.")
Spare *me* that agony. (Not: "Spare that agony from me.")
Show *him* the picture. (Not: "Show the picture to him.")
Teach *him* a lesson. Kiss *him* good-night.
Give *him* a warning. Call *me* a taxi.

The forms in brackets are not ungrammatical, and are sometimes used, but are not really idiomatic. Notice that both forms are used in Chinese: 送我一本书，给他十块钱，报告你一个消息，and 送一本书给我，拿十块钱给他，给你报

告一个消息.

With some vbb., we can attach a prep. either to the indirect or to the direct object. We may say *I present you with a new book* or *I present a new book to you / furnish him with information* or *furnish information to him.* Other vbb. can govern only things and not persons as direct object: *explain a thing,* but *explain to a person,* hence *explain that to me,* or *explain to me something,* but never *explain me.* Still others may govern both persons and things directly, *forgive a person* and *forgive a fault, excuse a person* and *excuse his appearance.* We usually say *forgive him his past faults.* With vbb. in *—ing,* we usually say *excuse a person from —ing (coming),* or *forgive a person for —ing (not attending).*

Exercise 99. The English language is full of idioms like *show me, tell me, bring me someting, serve me a good dinner, sing me a song, buy me a hat, do a man a good turn, serve him a warning, call me a car,* etc. Learn to use these phrases. Translate the following into English:—

1. 给我叫一辆车。
2. 把这事情告诉他。
3. 借我一百元（把一百元借我）。
4. 替我买一枝洋伞。
5. 给他一个警告。
6. 给他一个差事。
7. 衣服给我带来。
8. 给我做一双新鞋。

Translate Chinese sentences with the words *pa, tui, kei* (把，对，给) and see how they come out in English. Notice that the use or omission of any prep. and the general arrangement depend entirely on the particular vb. used.

Passive Subjects

12.40. Passive Vbb. with Objects.—The conversion of

Jack kill Jill into *Jill is killed by Jack* is quite simple. But when there are two objects, one of them may be converted into a subject in the passive sentence, with the other one still kept. Thus from *They told him a lie,* we get *He was told a lie.* Study the following:—

He was never *told the truth.*
He was *given a great welcome.*
She was *paid three pounds* a week.
We were *denied entrance* into the park.
We were *given the privilege* of going out at night.
He was *shown a picture* of deceased.
When only ten years old, she was *taught French and violin.*
When only twelve, she was *given a scholarship.*

Exercise 100. Change the following sentences into passive forms:—

1. They asked him an awkward question.
2. They paid her thirty cents for a day's work.
3. They allowed her two eggs and one pint of milk per day.
4. They gave him the job as a reward for his services.

12.41. Passive Intransitive Vbb.—It is of course impossible to form the passive voice with vv.i. which have no objects. If I say *She slept there,* it is impossible to say that something *was slept by her.* But vv.i. which are connected with a prep. phrase can be put in the passive voice. If I say *No one has slept in this bed,* I can change it into the passive by saying that *The bed has not been slept in,* meaning that the person who used to sleep in it did not come last night.

Now, in § § 11.20 and 11.21, we have already seen the close connexion between vv.i. and their prepp., as *look at, look up, look into,* etc. which form very definite concepts. We have also seen that *enter* (v.t.) *the room* means the same thing

as *come* (v.i.) *into the room. Come into* thus forms a definite concept, which is used very much like a v.t. It is therefore easy to understand that we can take the v.i. and its prep. and put them together in the passive voice. Following are some examples:—

She resents *being looked at.*
He *is looked upon* as a leader.
The accounts of last year must *be looked into.*
A doctor has *been sent for.*
The lost watch has *been looked for* all over the place.
She is the most *talked about* girl in town.
I *am done for.* (No active form exists.)
He *is* never *listened to.*
That is a thing devoutly to *be prayed for.*
That is a question which has *been* greatly *debated about* (or *upon*).
Who likes to *be laughed at*?
From her childhood, she has never *been* properly *looked after.*

Exercise 101. Convert the above sentences into the active form, using *they, we,* or *no one* where no particular doer is mentioned.

Impersonal Subjects

12.50. Impersonal Subjects.—In English, there are a great number of vbb. which can be used with impersonal subjects, very much as we say in Chinese 事情发生,东西遗失. Unless one takes care to note this use, one might easily make mistakes in the use of vbb. Thus we have: "*a dress becomes* a person" (looks well on him or her). "*food* does not *agree* with a person" (not: person agrees with food), and "*idea occurs* to a man" (not: man occurs to idea). The proper way

to say 我遇见某事 is: "*I came across something*" or "*Something happened* to me," but never "*I happened* to something." Study the following examples of vbb. with impersonal subjects:—

The door *opens*.
Shops *open* at 9.0 a.m. (not *are opened*)
The semester *begins*. (But: Work *is begun*.)
Here the letter *ends* (in speaking of some letter which the speaker has been reading. But: The task *is ended*).
Winter *begins* on Dec. 21 and *ends* on Mar. 21.
The disease *progresses* very slowly.
The interest gradually *accumulates* (not *is accumulated*).
That doesn't *count* (=should not *be counted*).
It *amounts* to over a hundred dollars.
Something (which has been worrying him) *weighs* upon his mind.
A picture *was hanging* (not *was hung*) on the wall.
The subject *acquires* a new interest for me. (Also: *I acquire* a new interest for the subject.)
The problem *presses* for solution.
A doubt *arises* in my mind.
The fact *remains* that he did not pay his debt. (Not *is remained*: a common mistake with Chinese students.)
How time *flies* (not *is flown*)!
A desire *awakened* in her breast (not *was* awakened).
This knife *will last* me a lift-time (not *will be lasted*).

It is impossible to draw up any rule as to which kinds of vbb. may take impersonal subjects and which kinds may not. One should merely form the habit of noting whether a certain vb. is used with impersonal subjects or not. The only rule is to consult a dictionary, when in doubt. A certain Chinese student once wrote *The men were full of house* (for 人满屋, really *The house was full of people*), because he had

neglected to learn sentences as a whole and to observe the use of an impersonal subject in the case of the phrase *be full.*

NOTE.—The use of false active (*poem reads, book sells*) has been discussed in § 11.35. The action of objects (*made him come, saw him go*) has already been discussed in § 9.91. Reflexive object have been studied in § 7.23.

CHAPTER XIII

TIME OF ACTION

13.10. The Time Scheme: Present, Past and Future.— The usual division of time is into the three main classes: present, past and future, as represented by *I saw, I see* and *I shall see*. In each of these three main divisions, one can state that something has already taken place before it, and something is going to take place after it. Thus we get nine tenses altogether, as shown in the following scheme:—

Before-past	*I had seen*
Simple past	*I saw*
After-past	*I was (going) to see*
Before-present	*I have seen*
Simple present	*I see*
After-present	*I am going to see / I shall see*
Before-future	*I shall have seen*
Simple future	*I shall see / I am going to see*
After-future	*I shall be going to see*

Notice that there is an overlapping in the central division "present," "Before-present" is really past, and "after-present" is really future. In English, the distinction between before-present and past is preserved through the forms *I saw* and *I have seen*, whereas in French, for instance, "I have seen" (*j'ai vu*) is regularly used for the past. Whether the grammatical distinction is maintained or not, the action itself really took place in the past. On the other hand, the after-present and the future really come together in English, because what comes after the present is naturally in the future.

However, a slight distinction is noticeable. There is a difference between *I am going to do it now* or *I shall do it now* (after-present) and *I am going to do it tomorrow* or *I shall do it tomorrow* (simple future).

Notice that, on account of the fact that the past of *shall* (*should*) has a non-temporal use (i. e., not pertaining to time proper), it is defective and cannot be used for the after-past and cannot alone form the after-future. On the other hand, the expression *be going to* gives us a perfect conjugation in all tenses. Actually, *be going to* is as important a form for expressing future action as *shall* or *will.*

Again, actions may last a long time. Hence, we get another scheme of durative tenses:—

Before-past	*I had been seeing*
Past	*I was seeing*
Before-present	*I have been seeing*
Present	*I am seeing*
Before-future	*I shall have been seeing*
Future	*I shall be seeing*

In this case, what is before-present really started in the past and is continued down to the present. Before-future has very little actual use.

Present

13.20. What is Present?—If we imagine time as flowing in a straight line, and try to fix the limit for the "present," we immediately see that it occupies an infinitesimal, ever-fleeting point of time only. Logically that time we call present is just a bare second, whereas all that goes before it belongs to the past (even the last second) and all that comes after it belongs

to the future (including the next second). It is because of this fact that the present always encroaches upon the territory of the past or the future. *I have just seen him,* nominally called the present, really indicates a past action, and *I shall do it now* indicates really that the action will take place in the future. It is, therefore, very difficult to "do" anything in the present. There are very few things that can be done in the present second. Hence, we practically never express really present action by the simple present, and use instead the present continuous: *I am doing it now,* which expresses an extended period. The result is, either we *have done* a thing, or *are going to do* it, or we *are doing* it right now. For fuller illustrations, see § 11.10.

13.21. Habitual Action and Eternal Truths.—Actually, however, we do regard the present as something more than a mere point of time. We often mean by it today, or the present week, or even the present year. For instance, we say *I am staying at the X Hotel this week,* or *We dine at eight this year, last year we dined at seven.* The last example indicates not really present action, but merely a present habit. Or in the case of words like *know, believe, think* and *be* (*I know you are right* / *I believe you are wrong*), the suggestion is really that knowing or believing covers a long time. Or again, we may express an eternal truth when we say *The earth moves around the sun,* or at least a general statement when we say *A carriage has four wheels* / *A hansom has two wheels* / *A statue stands in the yard* / *The Japanese eat a lot of beans and fish*/ *Bread is made from flour* / *If you take the plug off, the current is cut off* / *There is not enough ventilation in this room.* For this reason, we see that the simple present in English is used to

express habitual actions like *know* and *love* that cover a long time, and eternal truths or general statements. But it is never used to express really present action. When a man is killing a boy unintentionally, say to him, "You *are killing* the boy!" and not "You *kill* the boy!" although the killing may take only a fraction of a second. (See § 11.10)

Future

13.30. Expression of Future.—Future action differs from present action in that it has not yet actually taken place, and hence the action is not an accomplished fact, but a wish, an obligation, a possibility or an expectation merely. *He will go* / *He shall go* / *He may go* / *He expects to go.* There is always more or less an element of uncertainty or intention in it. The purest form is what we call "simple future": *He will die soon,* or *He is going to die soon.* These forms may be arranged under the following heads:—

(1) Simple future: *I shall come again* / *He will die soon.*
(2) Intention: *I will come again.*
(3) Command: *Come!/You shall come this afternoon.*
(4) Possibility: *I may come again.*
(5) Obligation: *I am to see himt his afternoon.*

13.31. "Shall" and "Will."—The English *shall* and *will* seem to cause a great deal of difficulty among Chinese students.

SIMPLE FUTURE		COMMAND
I shall	*we shall*	Always *shall*
you will	*you will*	
he / *she* / it } *will*	*they will*	INTENTION
		Always *will*

The clearest and simplest explanation is to arrange them under the three heads: command, intention and simple future.

As examples of **COMMAND,** we have: *You shall be punished for this / He shall be kept indoors / Each one shall have two eggs for his breakfast / You shan't see her again.* As no one gives commands to himself, therefore the forms *I shall, we shall* are not found in the sense of commands. Instead of *we shall,* the form *let's* is used: *Let's go.*

As examples of **INTENTION,** we have: *I will come again / They will come tonight / He has decided that he will not stay here any longer.*

As examples of **SIMPLE FUTURE,** we have: *I shall be going soon / I shall be away tomorrow / You will be sorry for this / The school will close soon / It will rain soon / Tomorrow will be Saturday / It will be impossible to do anything tonight.*

In asking questions, use the word which you expect in the answer.

Shall you be here tonight?	I *shall.*
Will you come again?	I *will.*
Shall they come, too?	They *shan't.*
Shall I tell him?	Do. (*You shall.*)
Will he die?	I'm afraid he *will.*

The important thing is to form the habit of using *I shall* and *we shall* for simple future instead of *I will* (and *shall I?* in questions instead of *will I?*). Say *I shall not be able to* and not *I will not be able to,* because this is simple future, for *be able* is not something that you can "will." There is a tendency in modern English to use *I'll* for *I shall* (indicating simple future), because *I'll* is shorter and easier to pronounce: as *I am afraid I'll die soon* (strictly *I shall*). This

is especially true of American and Scotch usage. But one should nevertheless form the habit first of following the correct usage of using *I shall.*

Will and *shall* are usually pronounced [l] and [ʃəl] or [ʃ-l] respectively: *I'll* [ail], *he'll* [hi:l], *they'll* [ðeil], *I shall* [ai ʃəl]. *Shan't* is pronounced with a clear [ɑ:]: *You shan't* [ʃɑ:nt] *do this.* There is a special use of *will,* meaning "insist," which is always pronounced full [wil].

I told him not to go, but he *will* go (i.e., he insists on going).
Boys *will* be boys (i.e., you can't expect boys to behave like grown-ups).
But things *will* happen against our wish.

Also as a full vb. (not as an auxiliary), *will* is pronounced full: *God wills (willed)* [wilz(wild)] *that it should be so.*

Exercise 102. Fill in *shall* or *will* in the following sentences expressing simple future:—

1. They say he —— be promoted soon.
2. No one —— be able to stop him.
3. I am afraid I —— not be here tonight.
4. Who —— speak at tonight's dinner?
5. —— he take part in the contest?
6. I —— not dare to tell him.
7. If we are caught, we —— all be sent to prison.
8. —— we stay away very long?
9. —— we go very far?
10. The matter —— be settled soon.

13.32. Chinese "Chiang" and "Yao."—The distinction between simple future and intention is best illustrated through their Chinese equivalents. *Chiang* (将) and *chiu* (就) and originally the meaning of "going," "going near" and "following,"

like the English *going to,* and like *going to* they are used to indicate simple future. *It is going to rain* (simple future) is easily translated by 将(要)下雨了 and 就要下雨了. *It will be finished soon,* or *It is going to be finished soon* (simple future) is easily translated by 就(要)完了. (This is true also of the French language, where "I am going to come," *je vais venir,* is used to express simple future.)

The word *yao* (要) originally expresses intention. 他要来不要来?= *Will he come or not* (is it his intention)? But like *will* in English, it also takes on another meaning indicating no intention, but simple future: *He will die soon*= 他快要死了.

13.33. "May" and "Is to."—*Shall* and *will* (with *be going to*) cover the three usual expressions of future action: simple future, command and intention. Two other forms, possibility and obligation, are usually expressed by *may* and *be to.* Thus *He may or may not come* and *I may go away tomorrow* are as much forms of expressing future action as *I will go* or *You shall go tomorrow.* Notice also that we say *I hope he will go* and *I hope he may go,* both indicating future action.

As a way of expressing future obligation, *is to* is often more useful than *shall.* Even in commands, *You are to hand in the exercises next Monday* is as often used as *You shall hand in,* etc. Where several subjects are designated, *is to* is probably more convenient than *shall: The first year students are to enter first, and the second year students are to follow them* (instead of *students shall,* etc.). Also in stating that something was going to take place in some past time (after-past), *was to,* instead of *should,* is the correct expression. *The*

ship was to arrive that afternoon (not *ship should*) means that the ship had not yet arrived at that past time, but was going to arrive.

Exercise 103. Translate the following from Chinese into English:—

1. 明天也许他不在家。
2. 也许明天他不见了，这是很可能的事。
3. 这出戏（play）成功不成功不一定。
4. 子路应在前走，子贡应跟着他。
5. 我就走了，因为我还要去看几位朋友。（过去）
6. 那天下午正要开学。
7. 你们一听哨响（whistle），就得聚集操场（playground）上。

13.34. Present Used for Future.—In English, the present is used for expressing future action under two circumstances. First, the vbb. expressing the idea of "going" or "moving" are often used this way. Thus for *I shall come,* we simply say *I am coming* (tomorrow or next week), and not *I am going to come. I am going* and *I am coming* therefore really express future action (compare *I am thinking, I am working now*). Further examples are:—

I *leave* tomorrow for Peiping.
The ship *sails* next Saturday.
He *starts* this afternoon.
You *are* not *going* to tonight's meeting, are you?
He *is going* away this summer.
He *is coming* back next autumn.

Secondly, in all clauses implying supposition, the present is used for the future. We say, *If it rains tonight, I shall not go* (never *if it will rain tonight*).

Give him my best regards *when you see him.*

By the time you return, there will be nothing left.
Don't wait for me for supper, *if I don't come back before seven.*
If you do this again (or *If this happens again*), you shall be duly punished.
Tell him to wait for me, *in case he calls.*
When he graduates from college, he will be twenty-two.

Past

13.40. Past Actions Are Facts.—Much more than ninety-nine per cent of the events in this world took place in the past. Hence it is that the past forms of vbb. are most frequently used in stating facts. In this sense, the past constitutes the exact opposite of the future, which expresses a wish, a possibility or at most an expected event (see above § 13.30). When we say *He killed a man,* we mean that the murder is already an established fact, but when we say *He will kill a man,* it is only a surmise, and even *I will kill you* consitutes nothing but a threat in the eye of the law.

13.41. Use of the Past.—Because past actions are facts, the most common use of the past is in reporting events. Whole shelves of history may be written in the past tense with the exception of the dialogues and the writer's opinions of incidental remarks. In making reports, scientific or otherwise, the past tense should always be used. The following is an example of a proper scientific report:—

"When the Congress of the Behaviourists *assembled* on the third day, a public experiment *was carried* out in the presence of the delegates and the local university professors to test the ability of pigs to distinguish artificial pearls from real ones,

> Two professors *were* in charge of the pigs in the yard, properly numbered from one to twenty-four. After the President *called* the meeting to order, Professor Lavinsky *led* Pig No. One by the right ear to a square previously marked. A thermometer *was put* in the pig's mouth, and the professor's assistant *listened* with a stethoscope held close to the subject's sides in order to observe its heart reactions, while a string of artificial pearls *was held* forth about thirty centimeters from the pig's snout for thirty minutes. After the reactions, if any, *were* properly *recorded*, a string of genuine pearls *was produced* at the same distance, and the subject's reactions *were observed* and *recorded* in the same manner. The number of gruntings *was* also *recorded*. The experiment *was applied* in identical manner to all the twenty-four subjects. After the complete series of experiments *was carried* out, and the records *showed* no noticeable difference in the subjects' reactions to real and artificial pearls, the Congress unanimously *came* to the conclusion that pigs *are* [eternal truth or general statement] not capable of distinguishing between real and artificial pearls of the kinds used. The meeting *was adjourned* at 12.30."

Another very common use of the past which should be noticed by Chinese students is in the form of phrases like *I knew, I thought, I didn't know, I didn't quite realize, I forgot,* which are forms for expressing a previous thought or idea, usually given up at present. *I thought* is the same as 我认为 and implies that I do not think so now. *I knew*= 我早知道, means I knew this before it happened. About the same idea is expressed by *I told you long ago*. These forms are very useful.

I knew you would do it. (A way of approval, when a man has consented to do something after your persuasion.)

I knew he couldn't do it. (I am a very wise man.)

I thought you didn't want me to come along. (A good excuse.)
Oh, *I didn't know* you had a friend here. (Excuse for intrusion.)
I thought you had decided to cut out smoking. (Gentle remonstration.)
I thought you were an honest man. (Sarcastic remark.)
I thought I was dealing with an honest man.
He thought he could get away with it. (Now he knows he can't: said with some satisfaction.)
That was what *I thought,* too. (I shared the mistake.)
I told you long ago not to believe him. (But you would not believe me until it is too late.)
I forgot to tell you that A wasn't coming.

13.42. Past Visualized: "Dramatic Present."—In telling stories, especially in passages of vivid description, the present tense is often used for what is known to be past events. The writer and the reader are supposed to be so absorbed in the account that the events seem to take place before their eyes. This is called the "dramatic present." E.g.—

Achilles *is* so *angered* by the death of his friend Patroclus that he *changes* his mind. He *swears* that his friend's death *must be avenged.*

So Achilles once more *appears* before his camp. With a great shout, he *enters* the battle. The Greeks *are overjoyed* to see their hero again, while the Trojans *gird* themselves for a severe battle.

Achilles *sees* Hector, and the two *close* in combat. Hard and furiously the two great warriors *fight* against one another, while around them the battle *rages.* The Trojan women *look* on from the ramparts with breathless excitement, for it *is* the greatest battle they *have* ever *witnessed.* Back and forth the tide of battle *turns.* Spear *clashes* with spear, and shield with shield, while the noise of chariots and horses and men's war-cries and women's shrill voices *are heard* in the general confusion.

At last, Achilles's spear *pierces* through Hector's body. The

great Trojan *falls*. A great shout *goes* up from the soldiers of Agamemnon and *rends* the sky. The Trojan women *are seized* with fear and bitter sorrow. Some *weep* and some *wail*, while Hector's own mother and sister *stand* quietly, silent as death.

In his fury, Achilles *takes* off the helmet of Hector, and binding his dead body to the chariot, he *drives* it around the city wall, with Hector's head trailing in the dust. Three times Achilles *drives* his chariot around the city, while the Trojans *look* on aghast and terrified.

It *is* a great day for the Greeks, and towards evening, there *is* great rejoicing in their camps.

13.43. Tense in Dependent Clauses.—Generally, if the main vb. of the sentence is in the past tense, the vbb. of the dependent clauses must be in the past tense also. Thus we say: Barker *said* (main vb.) that he *was coming* (dependent clause) / It *was reported* (main vb.) that Mr. Soong *was going* to resign (dependent clause). For full study of this use and examples, see § 7.61.

Irregular Verbs

13.50. Irregular Vbb.—The present, the past and the past participle are called the three "principal parts" of a vb. A regular vb. forms its past and p.p. by adding *-ed*, as *return, returned* (p.), *returned* (p.p.). In English, there are a good number of vbb. (among them, some very common ones, like *come, go, speak, write, stand, sit*, etc.), which do not form their past and p.p. this way and which are, therefore, called "irregular." The irregularity is due to historical development from earlier Indo-Germanic forms, while a great number of regular vbb. today were originally irregular. English vbb. from Latin or French sources are always regular (*return, com-*

mence, cease, remember), while all irregular vbb. are original Germanic words (with related forms in modern German, Dutch, Danish, and Scandinavian).

For practical purposes, it is only necessary to study these vbb. under three heads: (a) those having one form, (b) those having two, and (c) those having three.

(a) Some vbb. do not change at all or have only **one form.**

Present	*Past*	*P. P.*
bet	bet	bet
burst	burst	burst
cast	cast	cast
cost	cost	cost
cut	cut	cut
hit	hit	hit
hurt	hurt	hurt
let	let	let
put	put	put
set	set	set
shut	shut	shut
slit	slit	slit
split	split	split
sweat	sweat	sweat
thrust	thrust	thrust
rid	rid	rid
shed	shed	shed
spread	spread	spread

Notice that all these are monosyllabic words, with a final t (except *rid.* etc.). One never says *hitted, cutted, setted.* On the other hand, we have two alternate forms, *knit* and *knitted, wed* and *wedded, quit* and *quitted* for both the past and the p.p.

(b) We have vbb. with **two forms,** the past and p.p. being similar. Among these vbb., the p.p. never ends in *-n* (except *beaten,* which really belongs under "c"). Those marked with an asterisk (*) have also regular past and p.p. with *-ed.*

Present	*Past*	*P. P.*
bleed	bled	bled
breed	bred	bred
feed	fed	fed
meet	met	met
lead	led	led
read	read [red]	read [red]
*light	lit	lit
cleave	cleft	cleft
leave	left	left
flee	fled	fled
creep	crept	crept
sleep	slept	slept
sweep	swept	swept
keep	kept	kept
weep	wept	wept
burn	burnt	burnt
*learn	learnt	learnt
mean	meant [ment]	meant [ment]
deal	dealt [delt]	dealt [delt]
*dream	dreamt [dremt]	dreamt [dremt]
dwell	dwelt	dwelt
feel	felt	felt
*kneel	knelt	knelt
smell	smelt	smelt
*spell	spelt	spelt
spill	spilt	spilt
*spoil	spoilt	spoilt
build	built	built

Present	*Past*	*P. P.*
gild	gilt	gilt (gilded)
*gird	girt	girt
bend	bent	bent
lend	lent	lent
rend	rent	rent
send	sent	sent
spend	spent	spent
make	made [meid]	made [meid]
say	said [sed]	said [sed]
lay	laid [leid]	laid [leid]
pay	paid [peid]	paid [peid]
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
shoe (*rare*)	shod (*rare*)	shod
lose	lost	lost
sell	sold	sold
tell	told	told
buy	bought	bought
fight	fought	fought
bring	brought	brought
think	thought	thought
seek	sought	sought
teach	taught	taught
catch	caught	caught
sit	sat	sat
stand	stood	stood
understand	understood	understood
win	won [wʌn]	won [wʌn]
spin	spun	spun
wind [waind]	wound [waund]	wound [waund]
find	found	found
grind	ground	ground
shine	shone	shone
sing	sang (sung)	sung

Present	*Past*	*P. P.*
spring	sprang (sprung)	sprung
sling	slung	slung
slink	slunk	slunk
string	strung	strung
sting	stung	stung
swing	swung	swung
fling	flung	flung
cling	clung	clung
hang	hung	hung
dig	dug	dug
stick	stuck	stuck
hold	held	held
behold	beheld	beheld
*abide	abode (*rare*)	abode (*rare*)
awake	awoke	awoke, awaked
come	came	come
become	became	become
run	ran	run
beat	beat	beaten

NOTES (1) *Hanged* as past and p.p. is used in the sense of "hanging a man to death;" *hung* is used in the other senses.

(2) *Sung* and *sprung* are not in modern use for past tense.

(3) The auxiliaries *can, may, will* and *shall* have only two forms (present and past, but no p.p.). These will be studied in § 13.60.

(c) Finally we have vbb. which have **three forms** in the three principal parts. With the exception of the words *begin* and *swim* (which are nearer the words in "b"), these vbb. are always distinguished by the fact that they have their p. p. ending in *-n*.

Present	*Past*	*P. P.*
swim	swam	swum

Present	*Past*	*P. P.*
begin	began	begun
do	did	done
go	went	gone
fall	fell	fallen
eat	ate	eaten
give	gave	given
weave	wove	woven
rise	rose	risen
arise	arose	arisen
ride	rode	ridden
stride	strode	stridden
write	wrote	written
smite	smote	smitten
drive	drove	driven
strive	strove	striven
thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, t
freeze	froze	frozen
speak	spoke	spoken
break	broke	broken
steal	stole	stolen
choose	chose	chosen
take	took	taken
partake	partook	partaken
wake	woke, waked	woken, waked
forsake	forsook	forsaken
shake	shook	shaken
bear (=carry)	bore	borne
bear(=give birth)	bore	born
forbear	forbore	forborne
tear	tore	torn
wear	wore	worn
swear	swore	sworn
bite	bit	bitten

Present	*Past*	*P. P.*
bid	bade, bid	bidden, bid
chide	chid	chidden, chid
slide	slid	slidden, slid
draw	drew	drawn
grow	grew	grown
blow	blew	blown
know	knew	known
throw	threw	thrown
fly	flew	flown
see	saw	seen
slay	slew	slain
lie	lay	lain
lade (*rare*)	laded (*rare*)	laden
mow	mowed	mown
rive (*rare*)	rived (*rare*)	riven
saw	sawed	sawn
sew [sou]	sewed	sewn
hew	hewed	hewn
strew (*rare*)	strewed (*rare*)	strewn
sow [sou]	sowed	sown
show	showed	shown
swell	swelled	swollen
grave (*rare*)	graved (*rare*)	*graven, graved
melt	melted	*molten, melted
prove	proved	*proven, proved
shape	shaped	*shapen, shaped
shave	shaved	*shaven, shaved
shear	sheared	*shorn, sheared
cleave	clove, cleft	*cloven, cleft
tread	trod	*trodden, trod
get	got	*gotten, got
beget	begot	*begotten
forget	forgot	*forgotten, forgot

Present	*Past*	*P. P.*
hide	hid	*hidden, hid
bind	bound	*bounden, bound
strike	struck	*stricken, struck
sink	sank	*sunken, sunk
drink	drank	*drunken, drunk
shrink	shrank	*shrunken, shrunk

NOTES. (1) The last p. pp. marked with an asterisk have one form ending in *-en*. These forms are used chiefly (though not exclusively) as modifiers preceding nn., while the other forms without the *-en* ending are used as parts of a verbal tense. e.g.—

A *graven* image.	Image has been *(en)graved.*
Molten iron.	Iron is *melted.*
A *proven* or *proved* theory.	Theory has not been *proved.*
A clean-*shaven* face.	Have you *shaved* yet?
A *shorn* lamb.	Lamb's wool has been *sheared.*
A *forgotten* incident.	I have *forgot* (or *forgotten*) it.
Ill-*gotten* money.	What have you *got*?
A *sunken* bell.	The ship was *sunk.*
A *drunken* fellow.	He was dead *drunk.*
A disease-*stricken* district.	I was quite *struck* by her beauty.
Your *bounden* duty.	That is *bound* to happen.
A *hidden* word.	Where have you *hidden* yourself? (*hid* rare)
God's only *begotten* son.	Laziness is *begotten* of the devil.
A *shrunken* face.	The cloth has *shrunk.*

The swine's *cloven* hoof (only in this sense; otherwise *cleft*: a *cleft roof*).

(2) Distinguish carefully between the v.t. *lay* (*lay a book down*) and the v.i. *lie* (*I lie in bed*); also between the regular *load* and the irregular *lade*:—

lay [放]	laid	laid
lie [臥]	lay	lain

lade (*rare*)	lade (*rare*)	laden (与load意同)
load	loaded	loaded

(3) Distinguish between the p.p. *borne* (*The whole burden is borne by him*) and the p.p. *born* (*A baby born*).

(4) Notice that *flow* and *welcome* are perfectly regular, although *fly* and *come* (also *become*) are irregular.

fly [飞]	flew	flown
flow [流]	flowed	flowed
come	came	come
welcome	welcomed	welcomed

Welcome is used as an adj. in *You are welcome* / *He is welcome to say what he pleases.*

(5) Distinguish between *see* and *saw*:—

see [看]	saw	seen
saw [锯]	sawed	sawn

(6) Distinguish between the regular *waken, awaken* and the irregular *wake, awake.* All four words are used both as vv.t. and as vv.i., and all four mean about the same thing. *Wake* and *waken* are usually connected with *up* (*I wake up, I waken up* / *wake him up, waken him up*), while *awake* and *awaken* are not.

awake	awoke	awoke, awaked
wake	woke, waked	woken, waked
awaken	awakened	awakened
waken	wakened	wakened

Auxiliaries

13.60. Might, Could, Would, Should and Ought.—The past forms of the auxiliaries *may, can, will* and *shall* are, of course, *might, could, would* and *should.* In addition, there is the auxiliary *ought,* which is the past form of the vb. *owe.* The use of these words should be specially studied.

(1) They are used as past forms in dependent clauses. When we transform a direct statement like "*He said, 'I will come.'*" into an indirect statement, we have to substitute *would* for *will: He said that he would come.*

I didn't know what I *should* do (=was to do) at the moment.
He said he *would* be coming in a week.
You didn't think he *could* do it, did you?
I thought he *might* want to leave his home for a change.
The doctor said that a week's rest *should* do him a lot of good.
So I asked him to get the money ready, and he said that it *should* be arranged.

(2) They are used to indicate **something which is not true or which has not happened at present,** especially in connexion with *I wish.*

I wish you *would* not talk like that. (You *are talking* in a very rude manner.)
I wish I *could* go away for a vacation. (The fact is, I can't.)
He thinks that he *might* be able to get the job (which he hasn't got yet).
It *would* be a great pity to lose his service at the present moment. (Actually, he has not resigned yet.)
You *ought to* realize that this isn't a public playground.
I wish I *could* help you (but I can't).

(3) They are used with *like, want, care, think, be able to,* etc. as modified or weakened statements. *I like* states directly an open fact that I like, while *I should like* suggests a gentler, less decisive meaning. The latter form is generally used in preference to the former.

I should like to	He might be able to
I should think	He might be willing to
You wouldn't want to	I should love to

I shouldn't want to	You would like to
I shouldn't care to	He would want to
I should be able to	She would care to

I *should think* he must be there now.
I *shouldn't think* so.
You *wouldn't want* to play the whole afternoon.
I *should be able* to tell you something more definite, **if, etc.**
You *should be able* (You *ought to be able*) to do it.

(Review § 3.67 for a fuller discussion of this use.)

(4) The most common use of these past forms is **as auxiliaries indicating a general supposition, without reference to time.** *Do you suppose that he could do it?* means: is he the kind of man to do such a thing, whether now or at any time? If you put a lamb and a hungry lion together in the same room, what do you think *would* happen? The lion *would* eat up the lamb, of course. This is true at any time, and does not refer to the past or the present. We may say that *would* is used here to indicate a **general tense.**

The ideal thing *would* be for a man to marry at about twenty-five and for a girl to marry at about twenty-two.
That *would* be the best arrangement.
Any one *could* do it.
No one *could* do two things well at a time.
General Chang Tsung-chang believes that a girl *should* be shut up in her house and *should* never appear in a public park.
He is a very sensitive man, and if you tell (or: *should* tell) him that he has got a loose button, he *might* be offended.

Aspirin *could* be taken whole or dissolved in a glass of water.

Exercise 104. (A) Make sentences with *I should like, I should think,* etc.

(B) The use of *should, would,* etc. to indicate a general supposition is a most important habit to form in learning English. Avoid the following direct statements and change them into statements of general supposition:—

1. If you take away his books, he *has* nothing to do and he *sits* the whole day without saying a word.
2. I *like* to be an engineer.
3. *Is* there a chance for me?
4. If you don't look out, you *fall* down.
5. He *will* not listen to his friends' advice.
6. We two *may* pay him a surprise visit.
7. *Do* you *dare* to go out in a pink pyjamas?
8. It *is* best to let him alone.
9. *Do* you *care* to come?
10. *Do* you *like* to come along?
11. I'm afraid that *is* a little difficult.

13.61. Expression of the Past with Auxiliaries.—On account of the fact that the past forms *would, should, could* and *might* are usually used to express general time, a definite form for expressing the past with these auxiliaries (including *may, must* and *ought*) has been created by putting the principal vb. in the perfect tense. Thus we have *He could do it* (general tense), but *He could have done it* (past tense).

I *may have seen* it.
It *must have been* a mistake.
Some one *must have told* you.
You *should have prepared* your lesson.

It *would have been* all right, if, etc.
If the other banks had not helped, that bank *would have failed.*
Who *could have done* this?
You *may have heard* the story before.
You *should have heard* him talk at the dinner.
I *should have run* away.
You *should have resigned.*
He *could not have seen* me, because he was not there.

Exercise 105. These phrases are extremely important. Learn to make sentences with *should have, could have, may have, might have, must have.* Fill in the blanks in the following sentences:—

1. He had a car and five servants in his house. So he must have ——— a rich man.
2. How could you stand such a man for so long? If I were you, I should have ———.
3. He knew all about it. Some one must have ——— him.
4. You kept us all waiting for an hour. At least you might have ——— us.
5. He must have ——— this before.
6. He suddenly left without telling any one of us. I think he must have ———.

13.62. Declinable Substitutes for the Auxiliaries.—Because *will, shall, must, can* have become auxiliaries, these words are not declinable, i.e., they do not have a full conjugation. There is, for instance, no past for *must* (*He must go yesterday* is not English). Modern English, however, has developed substitutes for these words, which can be expressed in any tense like other vbb. These substitutes are in every way as commonly used as the auxiliaries themselves: thus *I am going to tell him* is just as common a way of expressing future as *I will* (or *shall*) *tell him.* We have, then—

shall or *will* = be going to
can = be able to
must = have to

Be Going to

Past	I *was going to* see him.
Present	I *am going to* see him.
Future	I *shall be going to* see him.

Be Able to

Past	I *was able to* pay him.
Present	I *am able to* pay him.
Future	I *shall be able to* pay him.

Have to

Past	I *had to* pay him.
Present	I *have to* pay him.
Future	I *shall have to* pay him.

Moreover, the future of past is expressed by *was going to* or *was to*. *We were to hold a meeting that afternoon* means that the meeting had not been held yet, but it was decided that a meeting should be held that afternoon. We say: *The ship was to arrive the next morning*, and not *The ship should* (past form of *shall*), etc.

Exercise 106. Make sentences with the following:—

I shall have to	He was going to
You will have to	I am not going to
He had to	The meeting was going to
We were to	The next athletic meet is going to
I shan't be able to	No one will be able to
He won't be able to	Miss Li was to

Conjunctions Expressing Time

13.70. Conjunctions Expressing Time.—Among these conjj., some express sequence of time (*before, after*), and some express contemporaneity (*when, while*). *Before* and *after* are quite simple. The use of others will be illustrated below:—

(1) Not until. Some Chinese students say *I will buy a new hat until money comes,* meaning 等钱来了，我要买一顶帽子. The Chinese *teng* (等) cannot be translated this way. Either say: *I will buy nothing until money comes,* or *I will buy something when money comes.*

Now can you forgive him?——*Not until* he makes an apology.

Not until the problem of militarists is solved, will there be any solution of the economic problems of China.

I will stay (or: I will *not* go away) *until* (or *till*) his mother comes.

We sat up last night *till* (or *until*) one o'clock. We did *not* go to bed *till* (or *until*) one o'clock.

We will keep on (will *not* change) *until* the proper time comes.

No one will be able to know the truth *until* the wounded man returns to consciousness.

Until you told me I had *no* idea of it.

(2) No sooner than, as soon as, directly, the moment.

No sooner had he finished his last sentence *than* the audience stood up. *As soon as* he finished, etc.

No sooner did I save up a few hundred dollars *than* some of my relatives fell sick or died. *As soon as* I saved up, etc.

The moment you leave the office, everybody starts talking, smoking and doing anything but attending to his duties. *Directly* (or: *As soon as*) you leave, etc.

Immediately he went away, some burglars went into his house and stole many things.

There will be a great sensation, *immediately* (or: *directly* or *as soon as*) this news is spread abroad.

(3) **While** and **when.** Notice that we just as often attach *while* or *when* to the second clause as to the first in an English sentence. *We were talking together when he entered the room* is probably more idiomatic than *When we were talking together, he entered the room* (cf. Chinese 我们在讲话之时他进来, but not 我们讲话在他进来之时). In any case, a *when-* or *while-*clause often stands at the end of an English sentence, while it seldom does so in Chinese. The English proverb says, "Make hay *while* the sun shines," and not "*While* the sun shines, make hay." *When* is often used like *which* for adding comments (§ 9. 62).

You may just as well finish this up *while* you are waiting (or: *while* you have nothing else to do).

I have no time to do any reading until I come back from office, *when* I am usually too tired. **(Comment)**

Why do you have to be an official *when* you can make much more honest money in business?

I often go to see him, *when* I have nothing to do.

When a man is out of job, he will do anything for a living.

What's the use of staying in office, *when* you can't do what you wanted to do for China?

Don't wait until they dismiss you, *when* it will be too late. **(Comment)**

I like to do my writing at midnight, *when* all is quiet around me, and nobody calls and no telephone rings. **(Comment)**

The Marshal goes to bed at seven in the morning, *when* everybody is getting up, and gets up at seven in the afternoon, *when* everybody is about ready to go to bed, **(Comment)**

Notice that *when* and *while* are often used to express a relationship not pertaining to time proper.

He is very short, *while* she is very tall.
He is dark, *while* his wife is very fair.
While (Although) it is true that he never visited China, he knew Chinese philosophy very well from the study of the classics.
While (Although) you cannot have exactly what you wish, you have gained something that you did not expect.
A ought to keep his promise, *while* B ought to help to make it possible for him to keep his promise.
Why do you remain with him, *when* he does not care about you and does not even support you?

Exercise 107. Make some sentences, using *when* for making comments and *while* meaning "on the other hand" or "although."

Adverbs of Time

13.80. Adverbs of Time.—The following is a list of the most typical advv. or adverbial phrases indicating time. Notice that we use *after three days, three days after, three days before* and *three days ago* for the past, while we use *in three days, in a week, in a minute* generally for the future: *I shall come back in a minute.* (*He finished it in a week* has a diferent meaning.) Notice also that there is a difference between *always* and *often,* both of which are usually translated by the Chinese word *ch'ang* (常). *He is always like that* should be strictly translated by "他老是这样" and *He is often like that* should be translated by "他常这样." *Presently* does not mean *at present,* but *by and by: I shall attend to this presently!*

Presently (Soon afterwards) *he appeared again. Every* and *next* are not preceded by prepp.—*every time, next Wednesday, next month.*

most of the time
often, seldom
ever, never
once in a while
once in a blue moon
now and again
sooner or later
once a week, once a month
on that day
on Christmas Eve
on Monday, on the 23rd
this Monday (without prep.)
every Monday (without prep.)
next Monday (without prep.)
at first, at last
at night, at midday
at sunrise, at sunset
for ever, for good
by that time (§ 11.62)

for three whole days
this time, (the) last time, next time, every time (without prep.)
(a) week from today, *or* this day week (without prep.)
Saturday week, a week from Saturday
week after next
presently, soon
soon afterwards (past)
three days after (past)
after three days (past)
some time ago (past)
the other day (past)
in a day or two
in a minute
wait a day, an hour, a minute (without prep.)

(For the use of prepp. indicating time in such adv. phrases, see § 11.62.)

Exercise 108. Make sentences with the above phrases, paying special attention to the use or omission of prepp.

Time in Nouns

13.90. Time in Nouns.—Nn. do not, as a rule, involve any

notion of time. There are, however, some cases like the following:—

her ex-husband	the former president
an ex-president	the bride-to-be
an ex-convict	his mother-in-law-to-be

CHAPTER XIV

FACT AND FANCY

14.10. The Verbal Moods: Close Relation to Sentence Moods.—The usual classification of verbal moods is as follows:—

(1) **Indicative:** *I come* / *I shall come.*
(2) **Imperative:** *Come!*
(3) **Interrogative:** *Will you come?*
(4) **Subjunctive:** *If he come.*
(5) **Infinitive:** *To come.*

The indicative mood is used for making statements, the imperative is used for giving commands, the interrogative for asking questions, the subjunctive for stating suppositions, and the infinitive for stating actions without any particular subjects.

These verbal moods are but certain forms in the employment of vbb. They do not conflict with the "sentence moods" studied in Chapter III, but help to form them. The interrogative mood is naturally used in forming an interrogative sentence, and the imperative mood is used in sentences which are commands, etc.

14.11. Fact and Fancy.—Among verbal moods mentioned above, the only one that has peculiar forms is the subjunctive mood (*if he come* / *if I were*). But this subjunctive mood is important not only because of its peculiar forms. From the notional point of view, it represents a very important psycho-

logical distinction between fact and fancy in the speakers of the English language, a distinction which is not observed in Chinese.

14.12. Subjective and Objective Moods.—From a notional point of view, we may divide the verbal moods into two classes: **subjective** (主观) and **objective** (客观). *He came,* for instance, is a bald statement of an objective fact; *He might come / He would come / if he should come* are statements of subjective judgments. In *That is a mistake,* the vb. *is* is definitely used to state a fact (although it may involve a subjective judgment), but in *That must be a mistake / That would be a mistake / That might be a mistake,* the vbb. *must be, would be* and *might be* state only subjective opinions.

The "subjective moods" may also be called "potential moods" (see § § 3.71–3.77). They cover a wider field than the old term "subjunctive mood." For instance, in *I hope you will come, will come* is really a subjective statement (a hope) although in form it is said to be in the indicative, and not the subjunctive, mood.

The Subjunctive Mood

14.20. The Subjunctive Mood: Shifting of Tense.—It is necessary to study the forms of the subjunctive mood first. **We** have the following forms:—

(1) If I had known. *(Past)*
(2) If I knew. *(Present)*
(3) If I don't come home tonight. *(Future)*
(4) If I (should) know. *(General)*

In addition, we have to examine the subjunctive forms of the vb. *to be* (*if he be* / *if he were* / *if he was*).

It will be noticed that there is a shifting of tense in the subjunctive mood. The past perfect is used for the past, the past for the present, and the present for the future. Form (4) will be discussed separately (§ 14.21).

Contrast the following subjective and objective statements:—

OBJECTIVE	SUBJECTIVE
It *was* a failure.	If it *had been* a success.
It *rained* yesterday.	If it *hadn't rained.*
I *knew* nothing about it.	If I *had known.*
I *know* nothing about it.	If I *knew.*
That *is* a lie.	If it *was* a fact.
I *have* only a dollar left.	If I *had* more.
He *thinks* so.	If he *thought* otherwise.
You *are studying* English.	If you *were studying* French.
I *shan't come* home tonight.	If I *don't come* home tonight.
It *will rain.*	If it *rains* tonight.
War *will break* out soon.	When it *breaks* out next week.
You *will see* him tonight.	When you *see* him.

Exercise 109. Finish the following sentences in the subjunctive mood:—

1. He forgot to bring a dictionary. If he...not....
2. I stopped him. If I...not....
3. It rained last night, as you could see the road is wet. If it...not...
4. I have very little money. If I....
5. He is very clever, but a little too talkative. If he....
6. (I am not in your place.) If I...you....
7. Don't let him know. If he....
8. I shall go and see him. And if I...not find him....

9. What will you do, if you...(*die*? *shall die*?) tomorrow?
10. She will marry him, no matter what...(*happens*? *will happen*?)

14.21. General Supposition: If He Should Have, If He Have.—The word "should," as is already discussed in § § 3.76 and 13.60, is used for stating general suppositions. The form *it...should* is probably the one most commonly used for this purpose.

If you *should* ever need money.
If there *should* be (*Should* there be) a vacancy.
If he *should* forget.
If I *should* die now.
If he *should* become the president.
If you *should* be interested in this matter.
If that *should* be the case.
If there *should* be a war between China and Japan.
If some one *should* say to you today.

As has already been pointed out, these sentences do not refer to any particular time, although sometimes a time may be indicated. We may say that these are **general suppositions,** belonging to the general tense.

Furthermore, *should* is also used in connexion with *lest, for fear, in case,* and other subjective clauses.

I shall send him a written word, *lest* he *should* forget.
Lest you *should* think I was unwilling to help you, I am enclosing herewith some money.
I am putting the money in different banks, *in case* (*lest*) some of them *should* fail.
He is doing it *for fear* (*lest*) people *should* misunderstand him.
In case you *should* need my help, just let me know.

Having made this clear, we may proceed to study the English subjunctive forms: *if he come* / *if he be* / *if he have.* Such forms are not in common use at present in standard English (which prefers *if he comes* / *if he is* / *if he has* or *if he should come* / *if he should be* / *if he should have*). Because they are out of the way, the usual grammars pay more attention to them than is necessary. Such forms may be considered as the equivalents of the forms *if he should come,* with the *should* omitted. That is to say, whenever such forms occur, it is always possible to insert the word *should* in it. For example,—

> If it *be* said that, etc.=if it *should be* said that, etc.
>
> Although it *be* the last thing I desire=although it *should be,* etc.
>
> Lest he *hear* about it=lest he *should hear,* etc.
>
> Suppose that he *return* you the money=suppose he *should return* you, etc.
>
> The court ordered that he *leave* the city at once, or that he *be* hanged to death=the court ordered that he *should leave,* etc., or that he *should be* hanged.
>
> He agreed to go, on the condition that his family expenses *be* (=*should be*) well provided for.
>
> The widow was bequeathed the whole estate, provided she *remain* (=*should remain*) unmarried.

Exercise 110. The word "should" is very often used in all statements that do not definitely state a fact, as *It is proper that you should,* etc. Make sentences with the following phrases:—

1. If...should....
2. What if...should...?
3. Should there be a....
4. How should I...?
5. I would...whenever he should....
6. Should you..., would you...?
7. Lest...should....

8. In case he should....
9. For fear he should....
10. It is proper that...should....
11. It is not right that...should....
12. It is beyond my understanding that...should....
13. I am thinking whether...should....
14. I do not doubt that you should be able to....
15. It is incredible that...should....
16. Don't you think you should...?
17. I can't understand why...should....
18. I can't believe that...should....
19. It was his mother's idea that he should....
20. It was our plan that...should....

14.22. Different Degrees of Supposition.—Attention has already been called to the existence of several subjunctive forms (§ 3.77). In a simple sentence referring to the present, we could use the following forms:—

(1) If he comes
(2) If he come (if he should come, should he come)
(3) If he came

The question is, how should one distinguish them in actual use? In order to understand this, we should know that there are different degrees of supposition, from a supposition which may quite possibly be true (*if he comes*), to a purer form of supposition (*if he should come*) and even a supposition which is definitely untrue (*if he came* for the present, and *if he had come* for the past). Just what degree of supposition is used depends entirely on the intention of the speaker.

(1) Past suppositions are untrue. Past events are facts (see § 13.40). Hence whether a statement in the past tense is true or untrue is generally known, and an imagined or

supposed event in the past is known to be untrue. This is easily seen in the following examples:

If it had rained last night, the roads would be wet (It did not rain last night.)

If I had not stopped him, he would have been killed. (I did stop him.)

(2) **Future suppositions are uncertain.** Future actions or events have not yet taken place, and therefore future statements seldom state a fact, but a wish (*I will go*), an obligation (*I have to go*), a possibility (*I may go*), or an expectation (*I shall go*). In any case, there is almost always a strong subjective element (see § 13.30). The subjunctive form (*if it rains tomorrow:* also general tense-form, *if it should rain tomorrow*) always implies an uncertainty.

(3) **Present suppositions vary.** The most common form used is the ordinary indicative: *if he comes.* When a greater degree of supposition is meant, the general tense-form *if he should come* (*now*) is used. This may be called a purer form of supposition. *If he come* (instead of *if he should come*) is used with still greater subjective effect, as in arguments: *even if he come / though he be a millionaire / provided he obey strictly my orders.* A more direct and still purer form of supposition is *if he came,* or *even if he came,* which almost always implies that the supposition is untrue.

Exercise 111. Decide which form should be used in the following sentences, and examine the degree of supposition involved, whether it is possible, supposed, or untrue. Notice that the ordinary indicative is very often used for the present.

1. What if I *don't* (*didn't*?) want to help you?

2. What does it matter, even if it *is* (*was*?) true?
3. I will have that treasure searched for, even if it *cost* (*should cost*? *costs*?) me a hundred thousand dollars.
4. What *can* (*could*?) he do, even if you *refuse* (*refused*?) him?
5. Go and see if he *is* (*be*? *was*?) here.
6. If we want to obtain government by law, we must see to it that corrupt officials *are* (*be*?) duly punished.
7. If he ever *comes* (*should* ever *come*?) back, do not take him in.

14.23. If I Was, If I Were.—In the cases of the vb. *to be,* an additional distinction is made between *if I was* and *if I were* (also *if he was, if he were*) for the present. Both state probably untrue suppositions, but *I were, he were* emphasize their untrue character more than *I was, he was.* However, both forms are quite in common use in modern English, sometimes almost without distinction.

He could not know everything unless he *was* a god. (In this connexion, *was* is perhaps preferred to *were.*)
If I *were* you, I wouldn't tell him about it. (In this phrase, invariably *were*)
Even if I *was* (or *were*) here, what could I do?
It *were* better (short for *it would be better*) that you never *saw* him again.
I know that if he *was* here, he would deny it.

The Potential Moods

14.30. The Potential Moods.—The "potential moods" are but another name for the subjective moods. In Chapter III (§ § 3.71–3.77), the potential moods of sentences have already been studied. These moods cover all subjective state-

ments of wish, command, request, doubt, fear, hope, judgment, advice, need, courage, presumption, conjecture, possibility, and other kindred statements. Here we shall review them once more, with special regard to the verbal forms used. They do not always employ the subjunctive form, but generally require some auxiliary or helping vb.

(1) **Command, request, suggestion.** The **subjunctive** form is most frequently used with this class of statements. The present tense (usually called "subjunctive present") is used even for the past tense.

The Captain commanded that he *go* at once. (*Go*=*should go*, see § 14.21.)
It is requested that the patient *be* (not *is*) allowed to have some food brought to him.
I suggest that you *go* (not *will go*) and fetch him.
It is the people's desire that the king *resign* (=*should resign*) and *be* (not *is*) replaced by his nephew.

(2) **Condition and Concession.** The subjunctive (past or present) is often used, though the ordinary indicative is perhaps more common. For their choice, see § 14.22.

CONDITION:—

I don't know if this *be* (or *is*) true.
If it *come* (=*should come* or *comes*) to that, I would fight it out in court.

CONCESSION:—

Although she *is* (**indicative**) rich, she is not happy. (It is a fact that she is rich.)
Though she *be* (**subjunctive**) the richest woman in town, she would not be satisfied. (A **supposition.**)

You have done very well, although you *might* (or *could*) have done better.

Still I am not for it, although all that you say *may* (or *might*) be quite true.

(3) **Wish.** A wish often refers to an untrue supposition, and therefore the past tense is quite generally used (see § 14.22, form "3"). See also § 3.73.

I wish I *knew.*
I wish I *were* dead.
I wish I *were* in your place.
I wish you *would* (or *could*) come. (Not *will.*)
But: *May* God bless you! *May* the Devil take you!

(4) **Hope, fear, doubt.** These often involve forecast of future events, and therefore very naturally employ the future *will* (2nd and 3rd persons) and *shall* (lst person).

I doubt whether I *shall* be able to do it.

I have no doubt he *will* be able to do it. (*Is able* is also correct, but less common.)

I am afraid I *shan't* be able to come.

I'm afraid that *will* be the end of his romance.

I hope you *will* come. (But: "I hope you *are* satisfied"—referring to the present.)

We hope that China *will* become (not *becomes*) a strong nation.

There is no doubt he *is* the best boy of the class. (Referring to the present.)

(5) **Judgment and supposition.** This has been fully covered in § § 14.21–14.22 already. The purer the supposition, the more the subjunctive form is used. "That *might* be true" has a stronger subjunctive connotation than "That *may* be true." Compare "I suppose he *can* do it and I know

he is going to do it" with "I suppose he *could* do it, if he *wanted* to."

(6) **Obligation.** In British usage, *ought* is quite often used, much more so than in American usage, which often uses *should* instead.

You *oughtn't* to do it.
You *ought* not to speak like that.
I *ought* to have told you.

(In American dialects the vulgar form *had ought* is often used for the past tense.)

(7) **Conjecture.** In making conjectures about unknown things, *can* (or *could*) is usually used in the negative sense, while *must* is usually used in the affirmative sense.

It *cannot* be due to his ignorance.
The mistake *must* be intentional.
It *could* not have been stolen by some burglar.
It *must* have been stolen by some one among the servants.
Yes, I think that *must* be true.
That *must* be a mistake.
No, it *cannot* be a mistake.

(8) **Possibility.** *May* or *might* is used according to the circumstances or the degree of supposition.

That *may* be your last chance.
He *might* still succeed.
You *might* burn down the whole house.
He *may* recover.
If I give you all the money now, you *may* spend it all.

CHAPTER XV

RELATIONSHIPS

15.10. Conjunctions and Logical Relationships.—The conjunctions in any language serve to bind the various parts of a sentence together. Grammatically speaking, they are the joints of the sentence structure. Notionally speaking, their function is to express the logical relationships. This latter view is broader and more comprehensive. We see, for instance, that English sentences often begin with conjj. like "and," "therefore," "but," or "because": "*And* I went away"/"*Therefore* I went away"/"*But* how can I do it?"/"(Why didn't you go?) *Because* it was too late." It would be easy to find their logical relationship with the preceding sentence, whereas it would not be so easy to establish their grammatical relationship with the same, because every sentence is supposed to be a separate unity.

Simple, Compound and Complex Sentences

15.20. Simple, Compound and Complex Sentences.—The parts of a simple sentence may all be classified as shown in the following scheme:—

Predicate

(1) Subject | (2) Principal Vb./(3) Object

(4) **(5) Modifiers** which may be attached to any of the three parts above (and sometimes to one another)

Conjunctions

Adjective
Adverbs
Nouns & Verbs (rarely), see § 9.27.
Nouns in apposition, §. 8.40
Participles
Pronominal phrases (adj. or adv. phrr.)
Infinitive phrases adj. or adv. phrr.)
Participial phrases (adj. phrr.)

The above accounts for the structure of **simple sentences.** Interjections or exclamations are practically independent in their nature. In such simple sentences, conjj. are chiefly used to join modifiers: "I saw a *good and handsome* boy"/"He worked *hard and fast.*" The subject and principal vb. remain simple in nature.

Then we have another kind of sentence where we have either **two subjects to one vb.** (*He and I went*), or **two vbb. to one subject** (*He came and went*). Some grammars consider these already as compound sentences in contracted forms (= *He*

went and I went / *He came and he went* contracted). But this has no practical meaning except for grammarians who are in the habit of classifying things.

Thirdly, we have real **compound sentences,** like the following:—

> He went away, *so* I came.
> I came, *because* he went away.
> *Either* you said so, *or* you didn't.
> You broke it, *therefore* you must pay for it.
> He wanted to go, *but* he didn't.

It is seen in the above that the conjj. *so, because,* etc. serve to connect two separate sentences into one, each part having its own subject and predicate.

So far, no clause has been introduced that is woven into another clause. *He went away* is clearly separate from *I came.* The moment we introduce a clause which is woven into another, or serves as part of its structure, we have what is called a **complex sentence.** For example—

I didn't say this. **(Simple)**
I didn't say *that I wouldn't go.* **(Complex: *that I wouldn't go* serves as object in the main clause.)**
That is unknown to me. **(Simple).**
How he did it is unknown to me. **(Complex:** noun clause as subject.)
The man went away. **(Simple)**
The man *who was with you* went away. **(Complex: relative** clause as modifier of *man.*)

In the above three examples of complex sentences, we have the conjj. *that, how* and the relative pron. *who* serving to connect the new clause with the original main clause. A

relative pron. is really only a conjunctive pron., just as a relative adv. (the time *when*, the place *where*) is only a conjunctive adv., because its function is to connect the new clause with something else, besides serving its regular function inside the relative clause.

Co-ordinate and Subordinate Clauses

15.30. Co-ordinate and Subordinate Clauses.—In the complex sentences, it is clear that there is always one **main or principal clause,** and one or more **subordinate** or **dependent clauses.** The dependent clause is woven into, or dependent upon, the main clause, and is therefore rightly regarded as of lower rank. Thus in *The man who was with you went away,* the clause *who was with you* is dependent on the main clause *The man went away.*

But even in some compound sentences, we can distinguish between main and dependent clauses. In *He came, but I went,* both clauses are evidently of equal importance, and there is no main or dependent clause. But in *He would come, if I would go,* clearly the first clause (*He would come*) is the main statement, and *if I would go* describes only a condition of his coming. The second clause is therefore felt to be of less importance or lower rank than the first. Thus we can have a main clause and a dependent clause even in a compound sentence.

In such compound sentences, just what clause is considered main or dependent, and whether the two clauses are of equal or unequal importance depends entirely on the meaning. It cannot be judged from the grammatical form. Conjj. like

and, both, either...or, but, as well as, not only...but also naturally introduce **co-ordinate clauses** (of equal rank). On the other hand, conjj. like *if, because, although, since, in order that, so that, lest* naturally introduce **subordinate clauses** (or lower rank).

Following are some illustrations of the difference between co-ordinate and subordinate clauses, as determined by their meaning (words in italics are conjj. or conjunctive phrases):—

CO-ORDINATE CLAUSES (equal rank)

He was a thief, *and* she was the thief's wife.
This one is good, *but* that one is not.
Not only is it possible, *but* it is *also* desirable to have him go with you.
Neither is this mine, *nor* is it yours.
This is all very well; *still*, it is not enough.
The rich man becomes richer, *while* the poor man becomes poorer.
She became very weak, *whereas* she had been very strong and healthy before her marriage.
You must do as I say; *otherwise* (or: *or else*) I will have nothing to do with you.

SUBORDINATE AND MAIN CLAUSES (unequal rank)

I will tell you, *if* you will promise not to tell any one.
Unless you promise, I cannot tell it to you.
We climbed over the top, *in order that* we might get a better view.
He began to do his best, *lest* he should fail again.
I said *that* he was no person to take up this business.
So long as you persist, I will not give you any money.

Logical Relationships

15.40. Logical Relationships.—All conjj. express some kind of logical relationship. These relationships may be classified roughly under the following heads, under each of which, we shall examine the means of expressing them in English. The conjj. play the most important role, together with the conjunctive parts (relative pronn. and relative advv.). Prepositional and participial phrases are often employed instead of clauses introduced by conjj.; in fact, they are always shorter and therefore make the sentences simpler and easier to handle.

15.41. Combination.—The commonest form of relationship is **combination.** *And* and *both...and* may connect any kinds of words or groups of words.

He was [*both*] defeated *and* tired (**combining adjj.**).
He played [*both*] fast *and* beautifully (**advv.**).
We saw each other off *and* on (**advv.**).
The arrow pierced into *and* through his chest (**prepp.**).
I paid *both* for him *and* [for] his friends (**prepp.**).
Both he *and* his wife escaped (**subjects**).
He was strong *and* he was handsome (**clauses**).
Men must work *and* women must weep (**clauses**).

Other similar relationships are expressed by *as well as, not only...but* (*also*), *furthermore, besides, in addition, what is more, on top of that*:—

He, *as well as* his secretary, was found guilty.
We *not only* dined together, *but also* danced together.
Not only did we dine together, *but* we *also* danced together.
It was *not only* unfair; it was contemptible.
He was *not only* found guilty, *but* was *also* condemned to life

imprisonment.

Besides **(conj.)**, it is against my principles.

Besides **(prep.)** giving him money and advice, he also bought the steamship ticket for him.

I have, *in addition,* last month's bills to pay.

What is more, the prisoners were subjected to flogging and torture, *in addition to* poor food and unhygienic surroundings.

On top of that, they were denied all intercourse with their friends.

15.42. Opposition.—Probably the most useful conj. for expressing **opposition** is the word *however.* Other words and phrases are: *but, while, whereas, far from, on the contrary, on the other hand, despite* (prep.), *in spite of* (prep.) and the simpler prepp. *contrary to* and *against.* While *but* is the simplest and commonest in use, *however* is most useful both as a variation from *but* and as a conj. which could be placed in different parts of a sentence, thus making for a smoother and more flexible construction. *Nevertheless* is also very useful, conveying a deeper sense of contrast, while *notwithstanding* (prep.) is a little archaic.

However, I am merely reporting this as a fact.

This, *however,* is something different from what you said the other day.

This is, *however,* something different, etc.

This is something different, *however,* from what, etc.

(For expressing a **concession.**—*However* much I may wish to help you, I can't. See § 15.45.)

But you said you could.

While this position offers you honour and power, it imposes on

you also a great responsibility.

He claimed that opium had been completely suppressed in that district, *while* the facts are exactly to the contrary.

Contrary to what he said, the growing of poppies has been systematically enforced upon the people *against* the people's wish.

In opposition to what you read in the newspapers, the prisoner has really never received a fair trial.

Far from wishing him any ill, I have been offering him the best advice a friend can give.

On the contrary, his expenses were all subsidized by the Japanese news agency.

On the one hand, he took money from the Government, *on the other hand,* he was carryingon anti-government propaganda.

On the other hand, there is this to be said for him.

Despite (*In spite of*) repeated warnings, he went to Manchuria.

She married him *in spite of* her father's opposition (*against* her father's wish).

Nevertheless, she married.

She married *all the same.*

For all (*In spite of all*) your trouble, nothing has been gained or accomplished.

15.43. Selection and Substitution.—For **selection,** we have *either...or* and *neither...nor*. *Either* may be used alone at the end of a clause or sentence, meaning "also." *Neither* and *nor* may both be used alone at the beginning of sentences, meaning "also not." For **substitution,** we have the phrases: *instead of* (prep.), *in place of* (prep.), *otherwise, or, or else. Or* has two meanings: (1) suggesting an alternative,=或是, (2) =otherwise, 不然.

You are *either* a fool *or* a knave.

Either you are a fool *or* you are a knave.
Either you are trying to deceive me, *or* you have been deceived yourself.
Either he goes *or* I go (i.e., we cannot work together).
Neither you *nor* anybody else can persuade him to give up writing poetry.
God is *neither* here *nor* there.
Neither of you knows the exact truth.
Either of us (*Either* you *or* I) must go.
You cannot do it. *Neither* (or *Nor*) can I. I cannot, *either*.
You do as I say, *or* (=otherwise) out you go.
You had better hurry, *or* (*otherwise*) you will be late.
You can send him along, *or else* you can go yourself.
Otherwise, how could he come in?
Instead of being dressed up for dinner, he came down in his dressing gown.

Instead of this, he took that. He took this *instead of* that.
Instead of improving his service, he became worse.
I came *in* his *stead* (or *place*).
Instead of a Li Hung-chang, we have a graduate of Oberlin.
In place of the old manager, we have a new boss in the person of McKinley.
Government by law, *instead of* by personal privilege, is what we want.

15.44. Exclusion and Inclusion.—The present participles *excluding, excepting, including* are placed at the beginning of clauses, while their passive forms (*excluded, excepted, included*) are always used after the words they modify. *Except, excepting,* and *but* are all used in the same sense, both as conjj. and as prepp. *Except*=除非. *But for* often appears as a

phrase, meaning "except for" =如非. *Too* is more common and idiomatic in modern English than *also*. Both words may be used at the middle or end of sentences, while *also* often stands at the beginning.

We have ten working days left this week, *excluding* the Sundays (or the Sundays *excluded*).
We will take in all applicants, foreigners (or: Chinese) *excepted.*
Excepting for a little over-use of red and green, the painting is perfect.
But for your help, I might have died.
The hospital has a staff of thirty, *including* the nurses (=nurses *included*=with the nurses *included*).
"I can resist everything *except* temptation," says Oscar Wilde.
When we arrived, we saw nothing *except* three persons sitting in the front row.
That is true, *too*. This is *also* true.
He came along, *too*. He, *too*, came along.
He came *also*. He *also* came.
Also (=Moreover), it must not be forgotten that he was born of Indian parents.
That is *also* a good thing. That, *also*, is a good thing. That is a good thing, *also*.

15.45. Condition and Concession.—*If, providing, provided* and *on the condition that* are used to express a **condition.** *Though* and *although* are used with very little difference to express a **concession,** as also *granting* and *granted.* At the beginning of sentences, *although* is more common than *though. Granting, providing* are less common than *granted, provided,* but mean the same as the latter words. The use of *as* and *while* in this sense should also be observed.

Measles is not a dangerous disease, *provided* you keep the child

in a closed room and maintain an even temperature.

Many incurable diseases are really curable, *providing* (=*if*) you begin treatment early.

Providing (or: *Provided*) everything goes off smoothly as we planned, there is no reason why you should not succeed.

Although he is poor, he is honest.

He is honest, *though* poor.

He cannot make both ends meet, *although* he tries his best to save.

(Elliptical) Do your best (=*Although* you may do your best), but you won't succeed.

Try *as* you may (=*Although* you may try as hard as you please), you won't succeed.

Hard *as* I tried (=*However* hard I tried), I could not hit the mark.

Willing *as* I was (=*Although* I was willing) to help him, I had to send him away empty-handed.

While (*Although*) I admit that it is so, still I cannot absolve him from all blame.

While (*Although*) he was not the only person to blame, he was principally responsible for it.

Exercise 112. Make sentences implying concession or admission, making use of the above conjj. with the above sentences as models.

15.46. Cause and Effect.—The common words expressing **cause** are the conjj. *because, as, since,* the prepp. *owing to, on account of,* and the participial phrase. **Effect** is expressed by: *hence, therefore, consequently, in consequence, as a consequence, with the result that. Hence* always stands at the beginning of the clause, while the position of *therefore* varies exactly as the word *however* (§ 15.42). *Owing to* and *on account of* are prepp. followed by nn. or verbal nn.(—*ing*),

and therefore make for shorter sentences. They do not form clauses, but only prepositional phrases.

Therefore, there was no way for me to do it.
There was, *therefore,* no way for me to do it.
There was no way, *therefore,* for me to do it.
There was no way for me to do it, *therefore.* (*rare*)
As I did not want to see him, I sent him a letter.
As it was his fault, he had to make it up to him.
As the train was two hours late, we strolled round the neighbourhood.
Well, *since* you say so, I will go.
Since there was nobody else to go, I went myself.
Since it is neither white nor black, it must be grey.
Since that is the case, we might just as well go home.
On account of his presence, we did not express any opinion.
Owing to (*Because of*) his presence, etc.
Because he was present, etc.
As (*Since*) he was present, etc.
Consequently (*In consequence, As a consequence,*) he died.
The doctor left a knife in his stomach, *with the result that* he died three days afterwards.
He spoke for an hour and half *with the result that* the other speakers had no chance to say anything.

Of particular interest is the English construction which, like many Chinese sentences, expresses cause **without any conj.** whatsoever. Examples of this type are:—

Love me, love my dog.
Once a thief, always a thief.
First come, first served.

15.47. Motive and Purpose.—A slightly different relationship is expressed by words denoting **purpose** or **motive.**

Generally, cause and effect are regarded as more external (an external event), while motive and purpose are internal (a mental reason for doing things). The participles *thinking, seeing, hearing, knowing, believing, mistaking* and other similar words describing mental states are often used in this way. Other phrases often used are: *in view of, with a view to* (*—ing*), *in order that, in order to, so that, for the purpose of, out of* (kin dness, gratefulness, etc.), *by way of, to the end that.*

Believing (*Thinking, Hearing*) that he was in Paris, she took the next train to France.
In her hurry, she got into a train for Lyons, *mistaking* it for the Paris train.
She went there, *with a view to* ascertain*ing* (*in order to* ascertain, *for the purpose of* ascertain*ing, so that* she might ascertain) who was her husband's new love.
It was done purely *out of* jealousy.
Out of gratefulness (for returning the handbag), she gave the coolie a present of ten dollars.
I was doing it just *out of* pity, not *out of* love.
In order to stop this trouble, the Government is ready to close down the whole school.
We gave him a hundred dollars just *in order to* shut up his mouth.
By way of illustrat*ing* what he meant, he produced a chart of the club's activities.
We should all work and labour, *to the end that* the new movement may become a success.

15.48. Comparison and Conformity.—The use of conjj. for expressing **comparison** (*more than, as...as*) presents many grammatical peculiarities. This arises from the fact that a comparison always implies two compared members, whether nn., vbb., adjj., or whole groups of words. Thus, if I com-

pare my age with your age and say *I am three years older than you,* the two members compared are: *I am old* and *you are old,* or my age and your age. Naturally, the full meaning is *I am three years older than you are old,* but it would be foolish to repeat the second member compared. Hence there is always a shortening of the second member: in this case, shortened to *you.* Also, in *I know you better than he does, does* in the second member takes the place of *knows you.*

Such omissions and peculiarities in the second compared member have already been fully studied in § § 10.20 and 10.50. Thus we have—

Subject omitted:	He eats more than (what) *is good for him.* (See *more than,* § 10.20, "1")
Object omitted:	He eats more than (what) *he can digest.* (See *more than,* § 10.20, "1")
Subject and vb. omitted:	I love you more than (I love) *her.*
Object and vb. omitted:	I love you more than *he* (loves you).

Compare also the use of *so...that* and *so...as* on p. 286 (§ 10.20, "2")

The second member of comparison may be a n., a vb., an adj., an infinitive phrase, or a whole clause.

Noun or pronoun:	This is better than *that.*
Verb:	I would do anything rather than *let* him get off like that.
An infinitive:	He knows better than *to go out alone on such a night.*
An adjective:	This is more than *fine*: it is excellent.
An adverb:	I have read it more than *once.*

Clause: He spends more than *he is earning.*
She is as good as *she is pretty.*

We can also have a complex sentence in which the second member is woven into the first clause:

This is *as* much *as I can stand.*

Here we have the main clause *This is much* and the dependent clause *as much as I can stand,* serving as an adv. clause modifying *much.*

The usual words expressing **conformity** are: *according as* (followed by a clause), *according to* (followed by a n.), *in conformity with, in accordance with* and *accordingly.*

According to Rule Six, all cinema films made in China must be censored before they are exported.
In accordance with that rule, I am submitting this for your inspection.
He said that all this had been done *in conformity with* their previous agreement.
We treated them on the spot or sent them to a hospital *according as* the wounds were light or heavy.
He is drunk or sober, *according as* he wins or loses (*according as* he fares, or *according to* his luck).

15.49. Time and Logical Relationships.—We have conjj. and advv. expressing time relationships like *as soon as, meanwhile, after,* introducing regular clauses. The usual advv. of this category, are, of course, *when, while* and *as.* It is found, however, that all such connecting words signifying time often develop a new meaning, which expresses another logical relationship besides time. Thus in the sentence—

Why do you try to help others, *when* you cannot even pay

your tailor's bills?

the relationship expressed is not one of time merely, but of a **contrasting aspect.** Similarly, with *while* and *so long as*:—"Why doesn't he pay up his debt, *while* he is buying his wife new hats everyday?"/"*So long as* they don't see each other, they get along nicely; but *the moment* they come together, they start quarrelling all over again."

At the same time, in the meanwhile, in the meantime, meanwhile and *while* express **contemporaneous action,** often with contrasting effect. *Pending* with the same sense, is a prep. *As soon as, the moment, directly, immediately* and *after,* expressing a **sequence of events,** often imply an inner relationship of cause and effect also. The adv. *once* is particularly often used to express a **causal relationship.**

Once you begin, you never know where you will end. (Cf. "一" in Chinese: "此例一开", "一失足成千古恨.")
Once you taste our dinner, you will come again.
When *once* he understands, he will forgive everything.
Immediately you try to do something, people will cry you down.
The professor began his lecture *the moment* he entered the room.
Directly (=*As soon as*) the teacher walked out of the room, there was an uproar.
After I had done so much for the boy, he ran away and disappeared.
At the same time, you must remember this is not all a matter of luck. One has to work hard, too.
Meanwhile, you go ahead with your own work.
Pending the construction of the new building, the students will be housed in the old dormitory.
As soon as one goes away, another comes in.

Interrogative Adverbs and Pronouns

15.50. Interrogative Advv. and Pronn.—It is understood that relative pronn. (*who, what*) and relative advv. (*how, why, when, where*) are partly conjj. and partly pronn. or advv., as the case may be. But, whether they are serving as relative parts or not, these interrogative words can all begin noun clauses, and may, therefore, be considered as a kind of conjj.

How he did it I do not understand.
This is not a question of money, but of *how much we can do with the money at our disposal.*
There was no question as to *who was the guilty party.*
I cannot say *whether it is right or wrong.*
That was the reason *why he did it.* **(Relative)**
We will see *what we can do for you.*
Tell me *when you want it ready.*
Who breaks pays.
He refused the offer but finally had to accept *what was for worse than the first offer.*
I don't care *where you live*; you must come to the office at nine sharp [九点正].
Where you live does not concern me.

Punctuation

15.60. Punctuation: Logical and Phonetic Basis.—The punctuation marks or "stops" (as they are generally called in England) include the comma, the semi-colon, the colon, the full stop, the exclamation mark or point, the question mark, the quotation marks (also called "inverted commas" in British usage), the brackets and parentheses, the dash and the dotted line. The use of these marks has a close relation to sentence

structure.

There are some points in the use of punctuation marks which admit of dispute. So much depends on the basis of judgment. Some grammarians believe that their use should be strictly on a logical basis, the stops being used to make clear the logical meaning, while many people hold that the stops should be on a purely phonetic basis, their use being to help the reader to know where to stop and where not to stop while reading the sentence. The latter believe that only in this way can the author's style be correctly appreciated. All good literature, whether Chinese or English, should be read aloud to be truly appreciated, and the punctuation marks should guide the reader as to how the author intends it to be read. Illustrations of this difference will be found in the discussions on the comma.

It is clear, however, that beginners should not attempt to go upon the phonetic basis, as only after years of familiarity with language would one know exactly where a break had better, or had better not, be made in the reading. Only in the hands of expert writers may this principle be safely applied. The beginners and the average writers should go on the logical basis and attempt at the clearest expression of their meaning. The only principle involved is really **Clearness.** A great deal may be left to commonsense.

15.61. The Comma.—The use or omission of the comma may often be disputed, much more so than that of the other marks. Some examples of these questionable cases will be given.

(*a*) In enumeration, no comma should separate the

last two items where "and" exists.

I bought a hat, a cane and a book. (*Not* cane,)
Tom, Dick and Henry.
She sings, writes poetry and plays the piano. (Cf. She sings *and* writes poetry *and* plays the piano.)

On the phonetic principle, one might write: ***I bought a hat, a cane, and a book.*** Notice that when long parallel clauses or phrases are joined by *and*, the comma is often quite necessary before it.

She sings French songs, and speaks the French language fluently, and plays the piano.
(On the phonetic basis, the first comma may or may not be omitted) She sings French songs and speaks the French language fluently, and plays the piano.

It is seen that the phonetic principle is less certain, but because it is so, it allows more room to express the intention of the author. Such punctuation, and such writing, would accord more closely with the actual spoken language. On the logical basis, one should omit the first *and*, as follows—

She sings French songs, speaks the French language fluently and plays the piano.

But we do not always speak like that in real life, and therefore such sentences may give the impression of artificiality or stiffness.

(*b*) Where we have two modifiers to one noun, the second modifier or modifying phrase is often separated by two or one commas.

She bought a very expensive, but very good-looking (,) hat.
He was a clever, but undependable (,) assistant.

Logically, we should have two commas, but phonetically, only one is required, as no one makes a pause between the last two words.

(*c*) Common phrases or advv. may often be inserted without commas.

Therefore (,) I went.
That was (,) of course (,) a fact.
Of course he knew. (*Better than*: Of course, he knew.)
But: This was, logically speaking, incorrect.
To be sure, he was to blame.
The envelope, strange to say, had been cut open.

(*d*) Commonsense could decide the rest for securing the greatest degree of clearness.

Any militarily weak nation would, like China, when she was invaded by Japan, resort to the boycott as the only weapon of defence. (The clause, *when she was invaded by Japan*, might be misinterpreted to refer to *any nation;* therefore, omit the comma after *China* and read:)

Any militarily weak nation would, like China when she was invaded by Japan, resort to the boycott, etc.

15.62. The Semi-Colon.—The semi-colon is usually used to separate parallel constructions or to mark a greater division of the sentence than is indicated by the comma. The characteristic of the semi-colon is that, with it, one can begin a new clause without any conjunction. E.g.—

This was not due to carelessness; it was due to wilful neglect.

The same sentence could be written as—

This was not due to carelessness, but (it was) due to wilful neglect.

or—

This was not due to carelessness. It was due to wilful neglect.

One feels, however, that the two parallel statements are quite closely connected, and do not deserve to be separated by a full stop. The semi-colon, therefore, marks a division point between the full stop and the comma.

Where the logical relationship justifies the use of a semi-colon, it may be used even with a conj.—

This was not ideal; still, it was the best one could expect under the circumstances.

Exercise 113. Correct the following by replacing comas with semi-colons or otherwise with appropriate conjj.—

1. She was sent to Shanghai without her mother's knowledge, it was against the latter's wish.
2. Policemen were standing in the middle of the road, they stopped the tram-cars and the buses, automobiles were searched, and all passengers were subjected to a close examination.
3. On the one hand, he could not do it himself, on the other, he tried to prevent others from doing it.
4. Man proposes, God disposes.
5. Firstly, he did not want to go, secondly, he was not the best man for it, and thirdly, Dick was realy to go in his stead.

15.63. The Colon.—The colon is usually used when one or more examples of what has just been said are about to follow. It is also used when one statement repeats another statement in a different form.

He said: "You have won."

The list is as follows: one hat, two canes, three pairs of boots,

etc.

Columbus discovered a string of islands: he did not discover the American Continent.

15.64. The Full Stop.—The full stop marks a complete sentence. There is a tendency in American journalism to make short snappy sentences, with full stops marking parts of sentences, which should not be imitated.

> "There is a tendency in modern newspapers to use short snappy sentences. The shorter the better. For the snappier they are, the happier the reader will be. Which is a good thing for the busy businessman."

The full stop is also used whenever there is an abbreviation of any sort. Examples are: Dr. (Doctor), Mr. (Mister), C.P. (Communist Party), Dec. (December), R.C.A. (Radio Corporation of America), yrs. (yours).

15.65. The Exclamation and Question Marks.—Although the use of these marks is a matter of commonsense, a warning should be given that mistakes are often made in their employment.

She asked me how I did it. (*Not a question*)

I was meditating how wonderful it all seemed. (*Not an exclamation*)

You are coming, too? (*A question*)

You are not joking? (*A question*)

Is that a fact! (*An exclamation; but the question mark might be used; or the two* "?!" *might be combined.*)

How dare you? (*or* you!)

15.66. Inverted Commas.—Some people prefer to use the single inverted comma, but the double inverted commas are more in general use. Quotation marks should be regarded

as sacred; no word should be put within these marks which does not exist in the original quoted. If there is an omission, dotted lines should be used. If words are added, these should be put in brackets, as follows:—

> "He [Mr. Henderson]...would not allow anybody to interfere with the policy of the Committee.

A quotation within a quotation should be marked with a single or double inverted commas, according to which one has not been used at the beginning: either "*He said, 'You have won,'* " or '*He said, "You have won."* '

In quotations extending over several paragraphs, the inverted commas are used at the beginning of all the paragraphs, but only at the end of the paragraph where the quotation closes. Thus—

"..............................

"..............................

"..............................."

15.67. The Dash and the Dotted Line.—The dash is usually used to indicate an abrupt break of thought, with or without breaking off of the grammatical structure. There is no denying the fact that in actual life our thoughts do not run off in perfect sentences, but often change midway to something else, or are otherwise interrupted, before the original intended sentence is finished. Consequently, the modern personal style often employs the dash to indicate this break of thought. Such sentences are often actually heard in conversations, so that their use in letters or familiar essays will contribute to that informal and easy-flowing effect.

(a) Sometimes, merely a pause is meant, as in the

following sentence:—

> When the mandarin fell on the floor, the first thing he would do on getting up was to readjust his tortoise-shell spectacles — leisurely, correctly.

(b) Abrupt breaks of thought are indicated in the following:—

> In order to get a divorce, you'll have to—oh, well, we won't go into that.
>
> I gave him full permission—in fact, I encouraged him, to examine the company's accounts.
>
> We had no money, no food, not sufficient clothing, being stranded in a strange city, hounded by the police from place to place—you can imagine the rest.

(c) The **dash** is also used after a colon, a comma, or a full stop, serving also to indicate a longer pause.

> The conditions are as follows:—
> Dear Sir,—
> For example,—

(d) The **double dash** is used exactly like the parentheses or brackets to indicate an inserted remark.

> After that, the three of us—i.e., my wife, my wife's brother and myself—went into a restaurant.

This is exactly the same as—

> After that, the three of us (i.e., my wife, my wife's brother and myself) went into a restaurant.

The **dotted line** indicates an unfinished thought. In the modern style, sometimes the dotted line is used to indicate bits of thought, as in reminiscences. This method of descrip-

tion is often more effective than perfectly connected sentences, because it is more suggestive.

> Shut up alone in the attic, I began to think of my early childhood. Effie playing in the garden...the nurse Jennie... my mother's smiling face...my father's stern eyes and prickly beard which tickled my little fingers...Jack my best school friend... the barn behind the backyard in which Jack and I used to play hide and seek...my story book with a green cover...the adventures of Captain Drake...

Often paragraphs end off in a dotted line, by which the meaning is conveyed that the writer has so much more to say yet, but is willing to leave it off like that (不尽欲言).

15.68. Parentheses and Brackets.—These two terms are sometimes used indiscriminately, but a proper distinction is made between parentheses "( )" and brackets "[ ]." Too much use of parenthetical remarks shows a loose, slipshod style and should be avoided, unless there is enough gusto in the writer to carry it through as, for instance, in the writings of George Saintsbury. Parentheses may also contain a sign or a short phrase.

This was the great (?) Dr. Forbes. (The insertion of the question mark implies that the writer doubts Dr. Forbes' "greatness.")

The people were taxed to death and bled white by the "revolutionary" (?!) generals.

Mr. Henderson continued: "We cannot let the unemployment question alone, because the question will not let us alone," (*Hear! Hear!*) (In this newspaper report, the "*Hear! Hear!*" indicates the applause of the audience at Mr. Henderson's remark.)

Loose and Periodic Sentences

15.70. Loose and Periodic Sentence Structure.—Compare the following groups of sentences:—

(*A*) *Loose Sentences*—

The dinner is at eight, if I am not mistaken.
He writes fairly well, although he is a little inclined to use long words.

(*B*) *Periodic Sentences*—

If I am not mistaken, the dinner is at eight.
Although he is a little inclined to use long words, he writes fairly well.

In group "A," the dependent clauses stand at the end, while in group "B," they stand at the beginning. Although the contents of the sentences are the same, the stylistic effect is quite different. In the first sentence, the speaker intends to say "the dinner is at eight," where the sentence could very well stop, but "if I am not mistaken" is added as an after-thought. In group "B," the same sentence is conceived as a whole from the beginning. Hence the first type (called "the loose sentence") is more informal, more natural and less pretentious, while the second type (called "the periodic sentences") is more correct and more formal. Both types have their usefulness in conveying different effects. The danger is that the Chinese student is apt to use exclusively the periodic sentence type, with the result that the sentences will lose their informal character, which is necessary to an easy, flowing style.

The loose sentence does not exist in classical Chinese.

The *Analects* says 齐景公曰："善哉！信如君不君，臣不臣，父不父，子不子，虽有粟，吾得而食诸？" It would be impossible to put the dependent clause at the end and say, 吾得而食诸，虽有粟？ or 虽有粟，信如君不君，臣不臣，父不父，子不子？" But in the modern *pai-hua* style, it is possible to say: "你的话 好啊！我那里有饭吃，虽然有粟，假如君不君， etc." This is an improvement in the flexibility of the language, and makes possible a truly colloquial style.

CHAPTER XVI

ECONOMY OF EXPRESSION

16.10. Ease and Economy.—Proficiency in any language means a certain ease in handling its sentence forms and constructions. The foreign student is apt to err on the side of stiffness and over-correctness of expression. He says, for instance, "you must not" instead of "you mustn't," and "if it is possible" instead of "if possible." These simpler forms, however, are used to a very large extent by the native speakers, for every language has naturally evolved certain omissions and short cuts which make for ease and economy. The English language, in particular, is marked by its love of economy and simplicity of construction, for the Englishman does not use more words than is strictly necessary for his purpose. It is therefore very appropriate that we should conclude our study of English grammar with a review of its various word-saving and energy-saving devices.

Shifting of Function

16.20. Shifting of Function.—A n. generally makes for simpler and shorter sentences than other parts of speech. Compare the following sentences:—

I saw *hatred* in his eyes. Or: His eyes seemed to show *hatred.*
    His eyes seem to show that he *hated* me.
I have no *fear* of his *running* away.
    I am not *afraid* that he may *run* away.

Cleanliness is next to *holiness.*
To be clean is next in importance to *to be holy.* (A bad sentence)
There's *comfort* for one's soul in *smoking.*
When one *smokes,* one's soul *feels comforted.* (A bad sentence)
Strive for *simplicity of style.*
Strive *to be simple* when you *write.*
He makes a *virtue* of *necessity.*
Because he *has to* do it, he is making it appear that he *loves* doing it.

In all the above pairs of sentences, it is easily seen that the first example is neater, shorter, and on the whole a much better sentence than the second example.

16.21. Change of Clauses into Phrases.—In consequence of the relative simplicity of nn. and complexity of finite vbb. (which entail with them a subject and perhaps an object), phrases which are without a vb. and subject are shorter and neater than clauses. This is especially true of prepositional phrases. The two words *for fun* can stand for *he was not serious in,* and the two words *by necessity* can take the place of the clause *because he had to do it. Do it by turn* is much shorter than *You do it first and the others will do it one after another. During his absence* is shorter than *while he was away.* In English, there are many pairs of prepp. and conjj. which have the same meaning.

PREPOSITIONS	CONJUNCTIONS
on account of his illness or *because of* illness	*because* he was ill

during his illness	*while* he was ill
against, despite, in spite of my advice	*although* I advised him to the contrary
for all my trouble, *with* all your trouble	*although* I (you) took so much trouble
for the purpose of, by way of, with a view to	*in order that, so that, that*
out of gratefulness, jealousy	*because* one felt grateful, jealous
with that, he went away	*after* he said that, he, etc.
with your permission	*if* you allow me
to my surprise	(I was surprised to)
upon seeing me there	*when* he saw me there
on hearing this	*when* he heard this
but for my help	*if* I had not helped him
like me	*as* I do it
after examination	*after* it was examined
before coming	*before* one came
since his departure	*since* he left

Many vbb. and adjj. may be followed by a prepositional phr., an infinitive phr. or by a clause beginning with *that.*

I am sure *of* his coming.
I am sure *to* meet him.
I am sure *that* he will come.

He is afraid *of* death.
He is afraid *to* die.
He is afraid *that* he may die.

He is thinking *of* going home.
He is thinking *to* go home.
He is thinking *that* he must go home.

I am sorry *for* you.
I am sorry *to* hear this.
I am sorry *that* the letter didn't reach you.

He was disappointed *at* their attitude.
He was disappointed *to* hear that they did not care.
He was disappointed *that* they took no interest in it.

16.22. Change of Phrase-Modifiers into Word-Modifiers.—Many phrases are used as modifiers and can be converted into word-modifiers. Thus, instead of saying "We are living in a China *torn by civil wars*," one might write more simply "We are living in a *war-torn* China." "If you go through the *famine-stricken* district" is simpler and better than "if you go through the district *stricken by famine*." How such modifiers are formed has already been fully explained under § 9.26.

Ellipsis

16.30. Dropping of Auxiliary Words.—A few examples should suffice here—

They had come and (had) gone.
He had inherited and (had) spent a forturne.
She was trying to start a ball, and he (was trying) to prevent it.
She was trying to get into society, and he (was trying) to get away from it.

16.31. Dropping of Principal Words.—This kind of ellipsis is especially common in answers to questions.

Would you join? I should love to (join you).
I should like to fry chicken or bake potatoes, but do not know how (to do it).
He has declared bankruptcy. You don't tell me (that this is true)!

Would you speak at the next meeting? I would rather not (do that).
Will you come? I think (I will) not.
Why the hurry? (Why should there be such a hurry?)
Why so? (Why is it so?)
But how? (But how to do it?)
How now? (How is it now?)
What next? (What is to come next?)
What about? (What is it about?)
May I telephone to him now? You might just as well (do so).
Is that correct? In a way (it is).
Does he write poetry? Not any that I know of.
Did you know of this? Not until now.
(Do it) Gently, please.
(That's) Enough! (That's) Impossible!
He comes from the same place (as I do).
I went to Enfield's (house *or* shop).

16.32. Ellipsis in Dependent Clauses.—Dependent clauses are often subject to all sorts of mutilations in English (see § 9.82).

I'll come, if (it is) possible.
Wash it in water, pick out the small particles, if (there's) any, and sun it in the air. Take it in, when (it is) dry. Replace it, if (it is) necessary.
(When) Dinner (was) over, the ceremony was begun.
I will bring her up all alone, (if) God (be) willing.
You should come when (you are) called.
When (you are) writing your mother, give her my warmest regards.
When (you are) in doubt, consult the dictionary.
Although (he was) the youngest of the class, he captured all the prizes.

Note also the frequent dropping of *that* in clauses:—

He said (that) he was coming.
I saw (that) he could not do it.
He said (that) he had received word (that) Millie was not coming.

The relative pron. *that* is also dropped when used as an object (§ 9.68):—

The man (that) you saw.
He was not the man (that) I wanted.
He was the one (that) you were asking for.
The things we have are not the things we want, and the things we want are not the things we have.

The tendency to shorten dependent clauses has also brought about the use of words like *as* and *but* as relative pronn.—

He came to apologize, *as* was expected.
Anyway, he lost his job, *as* has been mentioned above.
There is no one *but* admires his courage.

16.33. "And that."—In English, the phrase "and that" may stand for a whole preceding clause. E.g.—

The poor boy was ordered to go out and fetch water, *and that* (i.e., go out and fetch water) on a stormy night like this.
You had better pay up, *and that* (pay up) immediately.

Abbreviations and Contractions

16.40. Contractions.—The contracted forms like *isn't, aren't, won't, wouldn't, shan't, can't,* are so common that they are part of the daily language. In fact, they have become the regular colloquial forms, so much so that when an Eng-

lishman says *I shall not* or *I cannot,* it suggests a slight emphasis on *not*. Actually, the word *not* is always pronounced full [nɔt] and never [nət], so that there is no way of pronouncing this *not* except either with a clear vowel or contracted as indicated.

In questions especially, the forms *Are you not coming?* or *Can he not go himself?* are more rarely used than *Aren't you coming?* and *Can't he go himself? Do...not* in questions is still rarer. One very rarely says *Do you not think so?* or *Does he not come here evergyday?,* but uses forms with *don't you* and *doesn't he*. No student, therefore, can expect to speak English properly and idiomatically without mastering these forms (§ 3.51).

The use of *don't* for the third person singular present has never yet been countenanced by grammar books. Actually, *he don't* is extremely common today, even in lectures by Columbia University professors, for instance. The underlying reason is the unconscious desire for economy, for *doesn't* consists of two syllables, while *don't* consists of only one. *That don't matter* is certainly easier to pronounce than *That doesn't matter*. However, it is not for the Chinese students of English to be pioneers in English grammar reform.

16.41. Abbreviations.—Abbreviations have also become a part of the English daily language. Ordinarily, one says *auto* and not *automobile, taxi* and not *taxi-cab, co-ed* and not *co-education, movie* and *talkie* and not *moving picture* and *talking picture, 'phone* instead of *telephone, cinema* instead of *cinematograph,* and *exam* instead of *examination*. An advertisement is referred to as an *ad,* and an omnibus is just a *bus*.

The *Elevated Railways* in New York is progressively abbreviated thus: *elevated—el.—L.* In current English, one also speaks of "T.B." (tuberculosis), "O.K." (meaning "all right," and traced to excellent wines made in Aux Cayes in Santo Domingo, later used for anything that is of the right standard), "C.O.D." (cash on delivery by post), "C.P." (Communist Party), "B.A.T." (British American Tobacco Co.), etc.

16.42. Monosyllabism.—The same desire for brevity is seen in another tendency to substitute short words for long ones, especially in current American slang. Below are some examples (the specifically American or English slang words are indicated):—

cop=copper=policeman
thug=gangster
buck=dollar, as in "three bucks" (Am.)
guy=fellow (Am.)
chap=fellow (Eng.)
kid=child
grub=food, feed (Eng.)
bite, snack=a light lunch
grit=endurance
guts=real value, inner force
swop=change
fake=forgery, anything false
fad, craze=fashion
crib=plagiarize
cram=work hard before examination
grab=take by force
lot=amount
sack="give, get the sack"=dismiss, be dismissed
pop=papa
mom=mamma
kick=protest ("raise a kick")
row=quarrel ("raise, make a row")
push=aggressive or enterprising spirit
fit=in good health (Eng.)
deal=business transaction
job, post=position.
dough=money (Am.)
tip=suggestion ("give you a tip")
clue=suggestive evidence
off=finished, over
through="am through with you" =will have no more to do with you

hike=make an excursion on foot
probe=investigation
boss, chief=manager or president
date=appointment with girls
lift=elevator
up=has come up ("What is **up**?" "subject is up for discussion")
play=drama
broke=bankrupt
bum=penniless loafer

A very long list could be drawn up of these monosyllabic words, but the above, some of which are in literary use, should suffice. Notice also such truly monosyllabic combinations, which approach very nearly the Chinese:—

stand pat=remain firm in one's attitude
wash-out=a complete failure
lock-out=exclusion of workers as employer's method against strikes
try-out=preliminary test
tight-wad=stingy person
soul-mate=lover
dumb-bell, bone-head=fool
love-nest=lover's home
old man=husband, father
joy-ride=pleasure trip or drive
high-brow=high class, high and fine
give-and-take=exchange of service or favour
frame-up=trick to involve persons with the police

The actual prevalence of monosyllabism in current American can only be fully appreciated from the following examples, where whole sentences or phrases consist of monosyllabic words. E.g., *She got into a fit* (=rage) / *You've got to hand it to him* (=acknowledge his superiority or cleverness) / *Knock some sense into that guy* (=make him realize his situation) / *He was the best guy to put over a deal* (= a business transaction) / *I take off my hat to him* (=acknowledge his cleverness) / *What a guy wants is a lot of push and grit that will keep him on the go and not see red or fall flat and get scared when some one shoots a pop-gun at you.*

Some Special Uses of Economy

16.50. Mottoes.—Mottoes, in order to be effective and easily remembered, must be brief. Hence we find some English mottoes expressing a whole philosophy or belief with the brevity of Chinese grammar, in which all unnecessary words are done away with. When the Chinese say "Sit eat mountain empty" (坐吃山空), he conveys his idea just as clearly and much more picturesquely than a long sentence such as "If you do nothing but eat, even a fortune as big as the mountain will be gone some day." Below are a few examples:—

Easier said than done. (Notice that, strictly, *more easily* should be used.)
First come, first served.
Once bitten, twice shy.
Once a thief, always a thief.
No work, no pay.
Well begun, half done.

16.60. Economy and Emotional Language.—It is natural that under the stress of emotion, one says what is uppermost in his mind, because one has no time for grammatical perfection. That does not mean such exclamations are not grammatical or less effective. The grammatical peculiarities of exclamations have been mentioned in § 3.80. A few examples here will show many omissions natural in such exclamations: *Hands off!/Hats off!/My purse!/Me a burglar?/Pretty, isn't it?/Best food I've ever tasted!/He married?!/Quick—the doctor!*

16.70. Economy and Business.—There are many occasions when economy is needed for practical reasons, such as in writing cable messages, newspaper heads, advertisements, sign-posts and hoardings. When a man sends a cable "man in hospital doctor confident remit money," no one will crit-

icize him for his grammar. In the other cases, such as advertisements and news heads, the great consideration is for effectiveness, brevity and force. It is by force of suggestion, rather than by wordy statements, that customers are persuaded to buy the goods. Hence we find some of the best advertisement lines are short and to the point. The most effective cigarette advertisement consists of two words *They satisfy!*; others are *Walk a mile for a Camel! They are toasted! Taste is everything! Smoke Capstan.* The repetition of such phrases produces a hypnotic effect on the reader, whether he is a smoker or not.

SYNOPSIS OF FORMAL GRAMMAR

By formal grammar is meant the kind of grammatical study which concerns itself with the given forms of the language. Formal grammar studies the classification of words, the definitions for the different classes, the changes in form peculiar to each class, and analysis of the sentence structure.

A purely theoretical study of the formal aspects of a language always requires the counting of so many kinds of adjj., advv., etc., and in order to make the system exact, arbitrary definitions must be given to them. It is surprising, however, how little of this formal grammar is needed by the foreign student of the language. From the practical point of view, the following summary should be sufficient for the average student. References are given to sections in this book, which discuss the respective points at greater length.

NOUNS

1. Definition.—Nouns denote things. These may include an action (*examination*) or a quality (*goodness*) [§ 2.11].

2. Classification.—Nouns may be classified as follows:

Common:	*city* (§ 4.40)
Proper:	*Ningpo* (§ 4.40)
Collective:	*committee* (§ 4.50)
Material:	*water* (§ 4.51)
Abstract:	*kindness* (§ 4.30)

3. Gender.—There are four genders [§ 4.71]:—

1. **Masculine:** *man*
2. **Feminine:** *woman*
3. **Common:** *teacher*
4. **Neuter:** *chalk*

4. Number.—There are two numbers in English: **singular** (one) and **plural** (more than one) [§ 5.20]. Plurals which are formed by adding *-s* are called **regular** (*windows*): others not so formed are called **irregular** (*children*) [§ 5.22].

5. Case.—When a noun is used as the subject, it is in the **nominative** case; when it denotes possession (*man's*), it is in the **possessive** case; when it is used as an object, it is in the **objective** case. In English only the possessive case of nouns is distinguished by a special form.

PRONOUNS

6. Definition.—A pronoun is a word used in place of a noun (*he* for *John, this* for *this book*).

7. Classification.—Pronouns may be classified as follows [§ 8.11]:

Personal:	*he*
Demonstrative:	*this, that*
Relative:	"the boy *who* came"
Interrogative:	*who*?, *what*?

8. Gender.—There are four genders, as in the case of nouns. Actually, gender is distinguished only in the third person singular of personal pronouns (*he, she* and *it*).

9. Person and **Number.**— There are three persons and two numbers, as follows:

	Singular	*Plural*
Ist person	I	we
2nd person	thou, you	you
3rd person	he, she, it	they

10. Case.—There are three cases, **nominative, possessive** [§ 8.30] and **objective** which have different forms for the personal pronouns [§ 7.20].

11. The **relative pronoun** is a pronoun which introduces a new clause, and at the same time refers to a preceding word, called its **antecedent** [§ 9.60].

ADJECTIVES

12. Definition.—An adjective is a word used to modify a noun or pronoun.

13. Classification.—The classification of adjectives into **"descriptive," "demonstrative," "quantitative,"** etc. has no real practical meaning.

14. Definite and **Indefinite Articles.**—*The* is called the definite article, and *a* (*an*) is called the indefinite article [§ 8.70].

15. Comparison.—Adjectives have three degrees of comparison: **positive, comparative** and **superlative** (*good—better—best/white—whiter—whitest*) [§ 10.10].

VERBS

16. Definition.—Verbs are words that tell what persons

or things do.

17. Classification.—Verbs may be classified as **transitive, intransitive** and **auxiliary.**

Transitive verbs may directly govern an object, as: "I *see* (v.t.) you (object)" [§ 11.20].

Intransitive verbs do not govern objects (I *was sleeping*), but may be followed by a prepositional phrase (I was sleeping *in his bed*) [§ 11.21].

An auxiliary or helping verb is used with other verbs, as: "I *can* see"/"I *will* go" [§ 13.60].

18. Person and **Number.**—Verbs agree with their subjects in number and person. Actually, only the third person singular present indicative has a special form: "He *comes.*" The two verbs *to be* and *to have* have more special forms: *I have, thou hast, he has, we (you, they) have / I am, thou art, he is, we (you, they) are.* For the past tense, the verb *to be* has also distinctive forms: *I was, thou wert, he was, we (you, they) were.*

The forms with *-est* for *thou* (*Thou comest*) and the forms with *-eth* for the third person singular (*He cometh*) are archaic.

19. Finite and Infinitive.—Verbs connected with definite subjects (*He comes*) are called finite verbs; those that are not so connected, but follow the word *to,* are said to be in the infinitive mood (*to come*).

20. Participles.—Verbs which are used like adjectives are called participles. The **present participle** is always formed by adding *-ing,* while the **past participle** is usually formed by

adding *-ed*. The irregular verbs form their p.p. by adding *-n, -en* (*beaten, drawn*) or by some other modification (*slept*) [§ 13.50].

The present participle is used to denote active or incomplete action (*a deceiving letter, a drowning man*). The past participle is used to denote passive or completed **action** (*a deceived person, a drowned man*) [§ § 2.33, 11.44].

21. Voice.—A verb may be in the **active** or **passive voice** [§ 11.30]. When something is done to the subject, the verb is in the passive voice ("I *was sent* away"). The passive voice is formed by the different forms of the verb *to be* plus the past participle: *was* (past of *to be*) *sent* (p.p. of *send*), *shall be sent, have been,* etc. [§ 11.31].

22. Mood.—Verbs are said to be in any of the following moods:

Finite	**Indicative:**	*He comes.*
	Imperative:	*Come.*
	Subjunctive:	*If he come.*

Some grammars recognize also the interrogative mood [§ 14.10].

The indicative mood is the usual mood used for making statements. The imperative is used for giving commands, which are usually confined to the second person (*you*). The subjunctive is used in stating a supposition, and is distinguished by having no *-s* added in the third person singular present tense [§ 14.21].

Note that the so-called subjunctive mood refers strictly to the *form* of the verb [§ 14.12]. A really subjunctive statement (as, for instance, a supposition) may not at all

be expressed by the subjunctive form, as in *if he comes,* where the form is indicative but the meaning is subjunctive [§ 14.20]. Also, the form *if he should come* is called "subjunctive future" by old grammars, but this is a serious misnomer, because this form really belongs to the **general tense** and its use is not confined to the future [§ 14.21].

The verb *to be* has special forms for the subjunctive mood: *if I were* [§ 14.23].

23. Tense.—There are three main tenses: **present, past** and **future** [§ 13.10]. Within each of these main tenses, there are other tenses, as follows:

	Present	**Past**	**Future**
Indefinite	I come	I came	I shall come
Continuous	I am coming	I was coming	I shall be coming
Perfect	I have come	I had come	I shall have come
Perf. Contin.	I have been coming	I had been coming	I shall have been coming (*rare*)

Regarding the use of the different tenses, see § § 11.10, 13.21 (present indefinite), § 13.41 (the past), § 13.30 (the future), § 11.42 (the present perfect), § 11.43 (the continuous or progressive).

24. The **Principal Parts.**—The **present,** the **past** and the **past participle** are called the three principal parts of a verb. Verbs which form their past and past participle by having *-ed* added are called **"regular"** (*kick—kicked—kicked*), while verbs which do not do so are called **irregular** (*draw—drew—drawn* / *pay—paid—paid*) [§ 13.50].

(The word "gerund" referring to a verb in *-ing* used as a

noun, as *coming, going,* serves no practical purpose in modern English.)

ADVERBS

25. Definition.—An adverb is a word which modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb.

26. Classification.—Adverbs may be classified as follows: **simple, interrogative** and **relative.** This classification has no particular meaning except that the relative adverb is one which introduces a clause and has an antecedent expressed or understood: "Tell me (the time) *when* you are coming." Here the word *time* is called the "antecedent" of the relative adverb *when.* Simple adverbs are again classified according to their meaning, as **adverb of time** (*when*), **adverb of place** (*where, here*), **adverb of manner** (*how, well, cleverly*), etc.

27. Comparison.—Adverbs, like adjj., may have three degrees: **positive** (*quickly*), **comparative** (*more quickly*) and **superlative** (*most quickly*) [§ 10.11].

PREPOSITIONS

28. Definition.—A preposition is a word which shows some kind of relation and governs a noun as its object: *on the top, at the time.* Sometimes it is followed by an adverb: *at once, for ever, from afar.*

A preposition never stands alone in actual use, but always forms a prepositional phrase.

CONJUNCTIONS

29. Definition.—A conjunction is a word used for connecting words or groups of words: "this *and* that"/"He was there *or* he was not."

30. Classification.—Conjunctions which connect clauses equal in importance or logical relationship are called **co-ordinate,** while conjunctions which express an unequal logical relationship are called **subordinate.** Clauses of equal rank are called "co-ordinate"; when there are two unequal clauses, the one which contains the principal verb is called the **main clause,** while the other which is a component part of the main clause is called the **dependent** or **subordinate clause** [§ 15.30].

INTERJECTIONS

31. Definition.—An interjection is a word or phrase which is used in an exclamation.

* * *

32. A **sentence** is a group of words which expresses a complete meaning [§ 3.10].

33. Subject and **Predicate.**—The subject of the principal verb is called the subject of the sentence. The **principal verb** and any words attached to it, such as the object, complements or modifiers, together form the predicate.

34. A **complement** is that part of a sentence which is added to complete the meaning of the principal verb, as "I

should like *to go*"/"He was made *king*"/"Paint it *white*." An object is, by definition, also a complement, as "I killed *him*" [§ 9.90].

35. Direct and **Indirect Objects.**—The person for whom or to whom a thing is done is called the indirect object of the verb: "I gave *you* (indirect obj.) a *knife* (direct obj.)" [§ 12.31].

36. A clause is a sentence within a sentence.—It is distinguished from a phrase by having a subject and predicate like a complete sentence [§ 3.23]. A noun clause is a clause used as a noun [§ 3.64], an adverb clause is a clause used as an adverb, and a relative clause is a clause preceded by a relative pronoun or adverb [§ 9.60].

37. A **phrase** is a group of words which does not contain a subject and a finite verb [§ 3.23]. A participial phrase begins with a participle [§ 9.40], a prepositional phrase begins with a preposition [§ 9.50], and an infinitive phrase begins with an infinitive [§ 9.31]. When such phrases are used as adjectives or adverbs, they are also called adjective and adverb phrases respectively. A participial phrase which contains the word modified by its own participle is called an absolute participial phrase [§ 9.42].

38. A compound sentence is made up of two or more co-ordinate clauses. A **complex sentence** is made up of one main clause and one or more dependent clauses [§ 15.20].

39. To **parse** a sentence is to tell the parts of speech of each of its words and to give the gender, number, case of nouns and pronouns (also the person of pronouns), the

number, person, mood, tense of finite verbs, the degrees of adjectives and adverbs, and to state the relationships of the different words in the sentence.

40. To give the **conjugation** of a verb, or to conjugate it, is to state its forms in the different moods, tenses, persons and numbers.

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(THE END)

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